

The Outlook

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LYMAN ABBOTT
Editor-in-Chief
HAMILTON W. MABIE
Associate Editor

THEODORE ROOSEVELT
Contributing Editor
R. D. TOWNSEND
Managing Editor

Ever since 1801, when the first wedding took place at the White House in Washington, such events there have called forth a peculiarly and, we believe, increasingly respectful and kindly feeling on the part of the American people. This, in marked degree, characterized the wedding of Francis Bowes Sayre to Jessie Woodrow Wilson, the President's second daughter, which occurred last week there. No one could have been present without having the pleasant feeling that millions of people outside of the White House were sympathetically present. To the "God bless you's" of family and friends to a young husband and wife, typical of the best in American character, were joined the hearty good wishes of the whole American people.

The ceremony was marked by studied simplicity. It was a home wedding. It is true, there were evidences of official rank, especially on the part of the diplomats present. But as only one guest was invited from each foreign country, and as the splendor at a diplomatic reception is always brought out by the military and naval attachés and not so much by the Ambassadors and Ministers, there was not the anticipated color and variety of uniform. Also noticeable by its absence was the political cast of many White House receptions—only three or four Senators and three or four Representatives being present.

On the other hand, the intimate character of the affair was distinctly accentuated. The two families chiefly interested were represented by many persons; in addition there were some twoscore men present from the bridegroom's college—Williams. The occasion and the surroundings emphasized the fact that simplicity and modesty and good taste are quite compatible with the energy and success of American life. The White House is not a royal palace, a place of form, ceremony, and convention. It is, as it should be, the home of the first servant of his people.

It was with this conviction that the guests at last week's wedding enjoyed a sense of restfulness. For the Executive Mansion, which has seen much politics and more or less vain strivings, bickerings, and ambitions, which has been a haven to office-seekers—not to mention office-brokers—had suddenly vanished. Instead was left only the noble colonial architecture, emphasized, as it has been lately, by appropriate furnishings, and within an atmosphere not at all political, but sentimental, if you will, in the very best sense of that word.

The football season, which came to a close with the game in New York City between the United States Military Academy, at **FOOTBALL** West Point, and the United States Naval Academy, Annapolis, last week Saturday, marked a great advance in the game. The spirit of sportsmanship as exemplified in such games as those between Harvard and Princeton, Yale and Princeton (a tie game), and Yale and Harvard forms a great contrast to the bitterness and recrimination that marred the games of football twenty years ago. After Harvard won at Princeton, undergraduates of Princeton went in mass to the quarters of the Harvard team and cheered them. That showed a spirit that would have been scarcely understood in the nineties. After the game which Harvard won over Yale a crowd of Harvard undergraduates gathered in front of the football quarters and cheered the coach of the Harvard team. After making a brief speech, Mr. Haughton, the coach, asked the men to disperse because the defeated team was there and should be shown the courtesy due to Harvard's guests. That showed one reason why this spirit of sportsmanship has grown. The influence of such a man as Mr. Haughton at Harvard and such a man as Dr. Spaeth at Princeton counts for more than all faculty regulations or formal rules.

The rejoicing that comes with such a vic-

tory as Cornell won on Thanksgiving Day for the first time in twelve years against the University of Pennsylvania is very keen; but it is incidental to the satisfaction that both teams can have in a well and cleanly played contest.

Those who during the past decade have urged that football be not abolished but reformed have been justified by the event. The Harvard-Yale game, for example, was played with no lack of vigor; but it was played fairly. Even the rough play of one of the Yale players that was penalized was the roughness of the over-eager player, not, as too often in earlier times, the roughness of bad temper or deliberate intent. And the spirit of good sport which was exemplified in the play was exemplified in the conduct of the spectators.

The game of football has become an open game not only in the technical sense, which implies long runs and frequent kicking of the ball, in place of the piling up of players in mass plays, but also in the broader sense of a game in which there is no longer the old-time concealment of foul play and the secret infraction of both the letter and spirit of the rules.

No men have done better service to the colleges of America than those who have been laboring to bring about this renovation of the game of football.

All Thanksgivings ought to be thankful. Otherwise they are no Thanksgivings at all.

A THANKFUL THANKSGIVING

But some are more thankful than are others. A specially thankful Thanksgiving was that last week of the Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations of New York City. In fifteen days preceding Thanksgiving Day they had succeeded in raising over four million dollars.

They started out to raise this number of millions, for they are urgently needed, especially by the Young Women's Association, for it is not so adequately housed as is the Young Men's. Hence, as is just, the Young Women's will get three out of the four millions. In raising this vast sum the appeal of the women collectors was, as might have been expected, more persuasive than that of the men; thus, in addition to their special need, it is fit that the women should receive the larger proportion.

By an agreement made before the cam-

paign to collect the four millions was started, the general distribution of the entire fund will be as follows:

Young Women's Association:

Central Building.....	\$600,000
Harlem Building.....	500,000
Boarding Home.....	350,000
Central Club for Nurses.....	400,000
West Side Branch.....	50,000
Building for Colored Women's Branch.....	100,000
Current expenses (two years).....	150,000
Equipment and Adjustment Fund....	50,000
National Board Building (special)....	800,000

Total.....\$3,000,000

Young Men's Association:

Bowery Branch.....	\$390,000
Union Branch (Bronx).....	360,000
Colored Men's Branch.....	150,000
Williamsbridge Branch.....	40,000
Intercollegiate Branch.....	20,000
Contingent and Adjustment Fund....	40,000

Total.....\$1,000,000

The collection of four million dollars for the Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations in New York City has a treble significance. In the

first place, it calls attention to the fact that these Associations are doing a work which the churches cannot do. The immense sum raised is therefore significant as a popular estimation of this work at its true value. The churches themselves should feel a very real sense of satisfaction at this recognition, for the two Associations are, as they should be, "feeders" of the churches—that is to say, they are continuous contributors to the churches' quantitative and qualitative strength.

In the second place, the collection of such a sum in New York City has also its undoubted civic character. The metropolis has long had to bear what we think an unmerited reputation for "close-fistedness," not to say stinginess, in comparison with the proportionate generosity of other cities in giving to good works. The great collection just made should remove any such stigma—indeed, the fact that citizens of Manhattan Island could roll up such a total will astonish many other communities.

Finally, it should be said that this collection does not represent most notably the very great and cheering gifts to it. Its significance lies quite as much in the fact that it represents very many small gifts and sacrifices, not forgetting that of the janitor who

went without his turkey on Thanksgiving so that he might send his dollar.

Judge Ben B. Lindsey, like most men who have fought for their ideals, owes no small amount of his distinction to the enemies whom he has made. The attacks upon his administration of the Juvenile Court of Denver have been as vindictive as they have been insistent. It is sometimes not worth while to dignify such attacks by a denial, but in the most recent instance the assailants of Judge Lindsey seem to have overreached themselves so far that their downfall is worthy of record.

Two organizations, the East Denver Taxpayers' Association and the so-called Woman's Protective League, are concerned. The charges made by the latter were investigated by a committee of the former, an organization hardly less hostile to Judge Lindsey than the League which made the attack. These charges, widely circulated throughout the country in pamphlet form, were uttered at the time Judge Lindsey was confined in a sanitarium following a threatened nervous breakdown from overwork. The Woman's Protective League alleged that Judge Lindsey, because of frequent absence from Denver, was guilty of neglect of duty, and that in his conduct of cases involving assault upon girls he was unduly lenient towards the offenders. For two months the investigating committee listened to the mass of gossip, rumor, and intimations presented by the Woman's Protective League, and during that time no statement was made for which any one could produce an affidavit or proof acceptable even to the confessedly hostile members of this committee. In their report to the Taxpayers' Association this committee said:

Many rumors came to the ears of individuals composing your committee regarding derelictions of duty and wrong decisions of Judge Lindsey, but when asked to submit written reports of the same and evidence in support thereof, none were forthcoming. Most of these related to a previous term of office and were decided by other judges sitting for Judge Lindsey in his absence. The only matter that affects the Taxpayers' Association your committee deemed pertinent is a question of his absence during this term of office, from March, 1913, to September, 1913, for which you have heard his excuses and reasons.

The "excuses" to which this report refers were given ample publicity before the last

election at which Judge Lindsey ran for office, for a similar attack was made upon his record at that time. At that election Judge Lindsey defeated his opponent by 35,000 majority. His rival, supported by at least two Denver newspapers, received 11,000 out of a total of 55,000. With regard to the statement that Judge Lindsey showed undue leniency towards men guilty of assault and seduction, the actual record of his court shows that he has handled these difficult cases with an increased percentage of efficiency over the regular courts of Denver of from seventy to three hundred per cent. He has accomplished this while at the same time markedly increasing the protection afforded to the women involved, and providing for the future punishment, reformation, and control of the men.

One of the most important hearings ever held by the Inter-State Commerce Commission is now under way in Washington. It relates to the application of fifty-two railways, in what is known as the Eastern railway division, asking that they be allowed to increase their freight rates by five per cent. Three years ago these common carriers made a similar application, and it was refused by the Inter-State Commerce Commission after elaborate evidence had been laid before the Commission.

The railways now hold, and certainly with a fair presumption of correct reasoning, that the railway "cost of living" has so largely increased since the former hearing that their need and their right are positive and capable of proof. The evidence heard last week was, we believe, solely on the part of the railways. Later, representatives of shippers' associations and of the general public will be heard.

President Daniel Willard, of the Baltimore and Ohio road, and Mr. F. A. Delano, receiver of the Wabash system, were the most notable supporters of the railways' contentions, although many others were heard. An immense amount of statistical matter was laid before the Commission; but the situation as it appears to the railways was summed up in general terms by Mr. Willard as follows:

The immediate and all-important question is: How shall these railroads obtain the new capital necessary if they are to provide the needed facilities and furnish the high-class service

which the public demands, and to which the public is properly entitled? . . . These companies apparently not only failed to earn any return whatever upon the new capital invested, but saved even less from gross earnings, as return upon the original property investment, than they were able to show before this large additional expenditure was made. . . . In brief, it appears that the new capital invested in railroads in official classification territory during the last three years has earned little or no return; in fact, these properties generally are actually earning less net, after paying operating expenses and taxes, than they were earning at the beginning of the period, and before the \$600,000,000 had been spent.

Mr. Willard summed up the causes of the present enormous cost of railway operation as being from "increases in capital charges; increases in wages, in taxes, by burdens imposed by legislative enactments, such as extra crew laws, employers' liability and compensation acts, and the elimination of grade crossings. He also called special attention to the great increase in wage payments resulting from the awards of the arbitration hearings as to railways, which have been described in *The Outlook*—the last one alone, he said, gives the conductors and trainmen six million dollars additional.

As we have repeatedly said, it is a perfectly fair and right thing that the railways should be allowed to increase their rates, both for freight and passengers, if that is needed in order to insure safety to passengers, the best equipment, provision for future needs within reason, together with just and fair wages for employees. To determine whether the demand is or is not called for by actual conditions is the laborious task of the Inter-State Commerce Commission, and it is one of the greatest industrial gains of our time that such a Commission with such power should exist. To quote a passage from Mr. Roosevelt's editorial in *The Outlook* of last July, called "The Living Wage and the Living Rate:"

The Commission is no true servant of the public unless it unhesitatingly raises the rates when justice in the public interest requires such action, and unhesitatingly lowers the rates when this is the course which will ultimately best meet the public needs. . . . Unless the corporation makes money—that is, unless business men are prosperous—there will be no money to give in proper wages for the wage-worker, there will be no money with which to provide for his protection and to insure him against loss and damage, and no money wherewith to render proper service to the customers and to the public as a whole. . . . Our purpose is to see that there is a proper division of prosperity.

But there can be no division unless the prosperity is there to divide.

The coal-miners in southern Colorado have been on strike for two months or more. Acts

A NEW WAY OF DEALING WITH STRIKES

of violence, including the infliction of death, destruction of property, depression of business conditions, loss of money both for owners and workers, and the other unhappy results which inevitably accompany such a labor war have been reported from week to week. The Governor of the State called out troops and put them on guard in the disturbed region; but so far as peace was maintained it was a peace of hatred and not a peace of conciliation. Attempts to bring about arbitration failed through what we judge to be the obstinacy and excessive demands on both sides. Then was put into action a new plan for bringing public sentiment to bear on the matter and thereby influencing the disputants.

Editors representing twenty-five of the leading papers of Colorado met in Denver in order to sift the evidence and get the facts and advise the people of Colorado accordingly. Governor Ammons was present and told what he had done and why. The president of one of the large companies involved gave the owners' side; the president of the district association of the United Mine Workers of America told the employees' side, and that side was also presented by three working miners who are on strike, and who were selected by the strike leaders to represent the men. The speakers were given all the time they wanted and were heard with respect and interest. As a result, the twenty-five papers represented in the council made public a statement of the facts with specific recommendations as to what should be done. Without going in detail into the points involved, it is interesting to note some of the reasons for the recommendations. Thus, the men's request for a wage increase of ten per cent was not indorsed, on the ground that the men in their statements asserted that they were fighting for "a living wage," and that, in point of fact, they were getting good pay (ranging from \$2.25 to \$7.00 per day) as compared with other workmen of equal skill in the State. Again, the men asked for official recognition of their labor union; but the editors declare that such recognition was

unnecessary, because the laws of the State made it proper and right for a workman to belong to a union, and the employers had no right to object. The editors point out also that many of the specific demands of the men (such, for instance, as the right to trade at any store) are now guaranteed to all citizens by the laws of the State, and that the laws of Colorado are very drastic in upholding the individual rights of the workmen. If, therefore, the men are denied the exercise of these rights by their employers, as they most strenuously allege, it is, in effect, say the editors, the duty of the State to see that the demands are enforced because they are in accordance with the laws of the State. Copies of the recommendations of the editors were sent to all concerned, and also in broadcast form throughout the State. One result, we learn from the Colorado papers, has been that the Governor has appointed a commission to investigate and report on the average wages of the striking miners.

Not only the importance and danger of this particular strike make all methods of reasonable conciliation most urgent, but there is, if we mistake not, a lesson or model here for imitation in other cases. A combined and fair-minded effort by the press of a State to put the merits and demerits of a strike or controversy before the public, if properly carried out, should be a most favorable factor in bringing about industrial peace.

In the corridor of the Willard Hotel in Washington two newspaper correspondents met.

BABIES VERSUS TREES

Upstairs the Baby-saving Congress was just drawing to a close and the Conservation Congress was preparing to begin.

"Which are you saving, babies or trees?" asked the first, a woman.

"Trees," came the brief rejoinder from the other, a man (and presumably a bachelor). "They're more important."

That was apparently what everybody thought.

During the three days that the American Association for the Study and Prevention of Infant Mortality was holding its fourth annual meeting the big hotel ball-room exhibited a small body of two or three hundred very much absorbed people entirely surrounded with empty chairs. During the sessions of the Fifth National Conservation Congress the same ball-room showed not an empty seat,

but throngs of eager listeners standing up in lines around the walls. Both were, in the strict sense of the term, "conservation" congresses; each represented an old problem only recently ripened to that stage of acuteness which gives rise to a big concerted popular movement; the two propagandas are about of an age. Yet the term "conservation" still conjures up to the average person a vision of forests, water supply, mineral resources, and soil values now being thoughtlessly wasted or ruthlessly spoiled; not yet does the term present to the mind's eye that even more significant waste of a valuable National asset represented by the deaths of thousands of babies each year from perfectly preventable causes.

The time has passed when any one with any claims to knowledge on the subject asserts that the present high baby death rate prevailing in the poorer quar-

ters of American cities and towns is the working out of nature's law of the survival of the fittest. Doctors, laymen, and eugenists have come to an agreement on this matter. Not from sentiment or theory but from observation they have drawn the conclusion that, whatever causes go to make the baby death rate high, these same causes weaken the resistance of the survivors and allow a poorer stock to develop. Every successful local baby-saving campaign has been marked a few years later by a group of school-children just a bit stronger, better grown, more resistant than their predecessors who weathered through in the bad years. As to the next steps in the battle against high baby death rates, while there are details which are still hotly contested, at last the campaigners agree that it is known where and what the enemy is, and which factions thereof are most important.

First of all, we must have adequate and uniform vital statistics. At present, barring a handful of States, we stand with Turkey on this question, although rather less conscious of our deficiencies than was the official in Constantinople whose classic answer to an inquiry about the death rate was a shrug and the cryptic remark:

"Allah wills that all shall die; some die young and some die old, but Allah wills that all shall die."

A moment's thought will show what an

essential scout service accurate registration of all births and deaths performs in baby-saving campaigns. The new Federal Children's Bureau is working with the Census authorities in an attempt to popularize this dry subject to the extent of passing a model uniform law in all States, for nothing but uniformity throughout the country can make the registration of value.

A few years have marked a change among physicians and social workers as to the proportionate harm done by dirty milk and ignorance. A milk station used to be a depot for the distribution of artificial feedings for the baby. And it was a long time before it dawned on the philanthropists who established them that they did harm rather than good if they discouraged the mother from nursing her baby when she could.

Nowadays your up-to-date milk station is a sort of clinic for well babies, a center from which nurses and doctors distribute education on the care of the child, emphasizing the importance of breast-feeding, and distributing milk only where necessary.

A careful analysis of such vital statistics as we have had recently convinced the campaigners for the saving of the lives of babies that the great preponderance of deaths during the first week of life indicates something wrong at birth and during the prenatal period. This directed attention towards the value of prenatal care and the need of expectant mothers for instruction, by physician and nurse, about diet, exercise, and general hygiene. Many a maternity clinic has been established to fill this need.

It also directed attention to the menace to health and morals contained in the profession of midwifery as practiced in this country. The midwife is, for the most part, a European institution introduced in this country by our immigrant population. The midwife herself, when a graduate of one of the good European training-schools, is a woman of ability and frequently of education. But since she is unrecognized by the medical profession in this country, the same sort of training-schools have not been established here; with the result that in the foreign quarters of our large cities the practice of midwifery has largely fallen into the hands of a class of ignorant, dirty, unscrupulous women. Whether the midwife should be

suppressed or trained is a moot point; those who recognize primarily that only trained physicians should practice obstetrics adhere to the first theory; those who see in midwifery a custom sanctioned by generations, from which it will be impracticable to divorce our immigrant populations for many years, believe in training her.

The Health Department of New York City, where the problem is more crucial than elsewhere, is on the road to a demonstration of the wisdom of this latter policy. A few years ago a city ordinance was passed requiring the registration and licensing of all midwives. This was not, however, very satisfactory so long as there was no school in which they could get a proper training, and so a school was started at Bellevue Hospital. Here women of good character only are received, and they are given six months of such training as a nurse receives in her regular course. Everybody recognizes that this is far from ideal, but in a complicated problem it is certainly the beginning of a solution. A few nurses who are also social workers have registered as midwives in the hope of raising the social status of the profession somewhat and encouraging a superior type of woman to go into it. And after the first of January, 1914, the Department of Health will register no more midwives except such as can show a degree from an approved school. The Bellevue school is at present the only one on the approved list.

Massachusetts has the distinction of being the first State in the Union to take up seriously the question of city and town planning. The Conference held in the State House in Boston November 18-19 marks the beginning of a new phase of town planning.

It was at the instance of the Homestead Commission, which for the past two years has been studying the problem of homes and housing, that Governor Foss called a Conference of mayors and other public-spirited citizens, as well as housing and town planning specialists, to consider the subject. There are only one hundred and twenty cities in the United States which have city planning commissions or city plans. Five States have laws allowing cities and towns to have local planning boards. Massachusetts stands alone

with legislation making the establishment of such boards mandatory.

City planning once meant a "city beautiful." The new era in the movement recognizes that beauty is that beauty does. City planning now means "conservation of human energy," the "preservation of life," "economy," the "encouragement of commerce," "happiness." Local planning boards are to look out for the housing of the people, for the public health, for traffic and transportation. With the initiating and enforcing of appropriate legislation by such boards the fundamental method of gaining the efficiency which spells individual and social progress and happiness is reached. Incidentally there will, of course, be beauty and civic pride.

Such was the unanimous expression of the delegates, among whom were representatives of the Russell Sage Foundation, the Massachusetts Civic League, the American Public Health Association, the Boston Chamber of Commerce, the Associated Advertising Clubs, the National Housing Association, the Massachusetts Federation of Woman's Clubs, and various city planning commissions; also prominent educators, business men, editors, and city and State officials.

An especially good point was made by Henry Sterling, Secretary of the Homestead Commission, when he said that it is well enough to make Conservation an "important issue in political and economic discussion," but that "conservation of natural resources is of no importance unless it has for its purpose and effect the immediate preservation of human life." Any one who had the privilege of hearing Mrs. Eva Whiting White, settlement worker and member of the Homestead Commission, speak on the relation of sunlight and air in the home to the efficiency and happiness of the people would be persuaded of the pressing need of effective housing regulations and of the demolition of the slum. The rental-purchase plan as it works in the garden cities of England was explained to an unusually interested audience by G. Trafford Hewitt, of London, who has been connected with the garden city movement since its beginning. The importance of setting aside certain streets in the congested districts for the play of children was suggested by Philip Davis, of Boston, and incorporated in the recommendations of the Conference.

The objections to city planning were well answered at the Conference. In the first

place, when public improvements are in the hands of efficient local boards acting in harmony with the other city departments, there is likely to be less unnecessary expense than now when there is no "general policy in public improvements." Moreover, the cost for improvements could be assessed on the properties benefited.

For the first time in its history the National Municipal League crossed the boundary line

and lately held a meeting in Toronto. It did this that it might emphasize

the unity of the municipal problem in its essential elements and that it might avail itself of Canadian experience, Toronto and the several Ontario cities having achieved an enviable reputation for progressive administration. Accordingly, one of the sessions was devoted to Canadian problems, and the members of the League learned what had been done by the Toronto Housing Company operating under a government guarantee, by the Ontario Hydro-Electric Commission showing how a provincially owned works at Niagara Falls were distributing light and power over a far wider area than at one time was thought possible, and the truly wonderful development of the harbor front under a commission representing the Dominion, provincial, and local governments. There was also a striking paper on "The Provincial Department of Municipal Affairs" from the Hon. W. J. Hanna, the Minister of Municipal Affairs.

All of the addresses as to Canada were interesting and suggestive in subject, and as showing that no small part of the advance of municipal affairs in Canadian cities had come through a provincial rather than through a local development.

The Committee on Commission Government reported at length, showing wherein the city

manager plan was to be regarded as a logical development of the commission form of government.

In his annual address the Secretary, Clinton Rogers Woodruff, reported that there were now 371 cities in the United States carrying on their municipal business under a commission form of government. Mr. Woodruff declared that the city manager plan represented a completer and

more effective unification of the administrative work of the municipality; it makes possible the retention of a permanent professional expert, and therefore the opening of a new career of the greatest possibilities. Moreover, the city manager plan leaves the electors free to choose candidates on the basis of their representative character unfettered by any implied requirements as to executive experience or capacity to earn a large salary. It therefore involves an abandonment of the unscientific plan of attempting to select executive experts by popular elections for short terms. The formal report of the Committee pointed out that the city manager plan created a single head administrative establishment instead of five separate administrative establishments as seen in the Des Moines plan, and that this administrative unity makes for harmony between municipal departments, since all are subject to a common head.

The Committee on Franchises, through its chairman, Dr. Delos F. Wilcox, of New York City, submitted a report on the relation of

THE CITIES AND FRANCHISES

municipal home rule to the control of public utilities. While admitting the force of several of the arguments in favor of State regulation of street railways, telephones, electric and gas plants, etc., the Committee took strong ground against making State regulation exclusive. The Committee pointed out that public utilities are primarily urban in character, and that, on general principles, the control of public functions should be localized as much as possible in order to secure the interest and effective co-operation of citizens. Moreover, as a practical matter, the more powerful the corporations become and the more widespread their services, the more important it is that they should be directly answerable to the local communities which they serve. Public utility corporations exist to serve the people, not to control them. In most cases, regulation cannot be either logical or effective without the active co-operation of both State and local authorities. The jurisdiction of State public service commissions should be general over all public utilities, so that there will be no "twilight zone" within which the public utilities can escape regulation altogether, but every city of enough importance to enjoy home rule in framing its charter should have the right to establish a separate

bureau, department, or commission for the supervision of all utilities operating within the city limits.

Coming to certain important questions in connection with franchise contracts between cities and public utility companies, the Committee took the ground that a public utility within a given urban community is a natural monopoly, and that one of the first and essential obligations of such a monopoly is to extend its services to meet all the legitimate needs of the community. Accordingly, the municipal authorities ought to have the right to initiate extensions, and the reasonableness of any particular extension should not be determined solely by the prospective profit from its operation as a separate unit, but by the effect upon the profits of the entire system.

The Committee also discussed the various types of the indeterminate franchise as used in Massachusetts, Wisconsin, and elsewhere, and recommended the indeterminate franchise with a maximum time limit, on the principle of the recent traction settlement franchises granted in Chicago, Cleveland, and New York City.

In the final section of the report the Committee urged the importance of a systematic campaign for the recovery of control over the perpetual and long-term franchises now outstanding. So long as the utilities in the heart of the city continue to be owned and operated under unsatisfactory, out-of-date franchises, the city can have no adequate control of the development of the street railways or other utilities.

Not alone in New York City is there a police situation calling for reform. In many

another city a similar situation has presented itself. In St. Paul, for instance, a community prominent because of the cultivation and character of its citizens, such a situation exists. The manner of dealing with it may convey a hint to the citizens of other cities concerning the direct relation which should exist between citizens and their municipal governments.

In St. Paul recently twenty citizens called a mass-meeting to protest against the action of the Chief of Police and the police administration in the matter of defenseless prisoners, especially the institution of star chamber sessions by the Police Commissioners. The

mass-meeting was attended by over three thousand people, and nearly two thousand were turned away. This happened despite the fact that the two leading newspapers in St. Paul supported the city administration. The meeting adopted resolutions declaring that the community should not allow outrages upon prisoners to go unrebuked, and especially protesting against the continuance in office either of a Chief of Police so cowardly and brutal as to connive at assaults upon prisoners in custody or of a Police Board which condoned such brutality. There were other charges also against the Chief of Police. The citizens demanded the immediate removal of the Chief of Police and the officers who participated in the particular assault in question.

The effect of the protest was seen when, within one week after the meeting, the Police Commission was forced to remove the Chief of Police and three detectives for the good of the service.

Seldom has the power of public opinion been more swiftly administered. If men in other towns had the courage of the twenty who called the St. Paul meeting, their police authorities would feel the power of that civic courage, and city government would be improved.

On October 31, 1892, the Young Women's Christian Association of Brooklyn opened for work an administration building, the gift of a single generous citizen of what was at that time the city of Brooklyn. Twenty-one years later to the very day it opened the doors of an Association Residence for young women—the gift of sixty-five hundred donors—a number which would fill three times over the opera-house of the Academy of Music of that borough.

During the intervening years the Young Women's Christian Association has been carrying on the usual work for young women: classes in which last year were enrolled sixteen hundred students in technical branches, an employment agency which places a rapidly increasing number of workers of various types, Bible classes, Sunday services, and recreational hours. Besides these departments at the central building there are two branches, one of them for colored women, and there is the familiar and interesting work in factories and other industrial centers. By these means the Association has been making itself known and

felt in the borough and has been coming to the knowledge that one most important thing remained for it to undertake—the safe and comfortable housing of young women wage-earners. To this end, two years and a half ago an appeal was made by means of a “whirlwind campaign,” such as the borough of Manhattan has just experienced, for \$400,000 to build and equip a fireproof structure to accommodate some two hundred and fifty girls. In two weeks more than this amount was raised in gifts ranging from twenty-five cents to twenty-five thousand dollars.

On the 21st of November, 1913, the “Harriet Judson,” named for the only President this Association has known in the twenty-six years of its existence, was dedicated. It is a simple and beautiful building on Nevins Street, two blocks from a subway station, and near to the business district of this part of Brooklyn. At the dedication service, in acknowledging the honor conferred upon her by the name of the residence, Mrs. Judson gave as her choice of a descriptive title for it, “The House of Friendliness,” and in this title, said the Rev. Lyman Abbott, she had given his entire address of dedication. “To be a ‘House of Friendliness,’ in which shall be found liberty based on ‘few rules and high standards,’ equality without patronage, fellowship, repose, and happiness”—this is the aim of the Harriet Judson, a gift by the community to the community to be administered by the Young Women's Christian Association.

The Outlook has reported the dismissal of a woman from her position as a teacher in

the public schools of New York City on the ground that her absence for the purpose of bearing a child constituted “neglect of duty.” The teacher appealed to the New York Supreme Court for reinstatement, and her appeal has been granted. Justice Seabury, in handing down the decision, said in part:

The policy of our law favors marriage and the birth of children, and I know of no provision of our statute law or any principle of common law which justifies the inference that a public policy which conceded sanctions the employment of married women as teachers treats as ground of expulsion the act of a married woman in giving birth to a child.

Whether the Legislature should exclude mar-

ried women from the schools as teachers, assuming that it has the power to do so, is a question upon which there may be differences of opinion, but it is not the province of the court to decide. The fact is that the Legislature had sanctioned the employment of married women as teachers. Married women being lawfully employed as teachers and excusable for absence caused by "personal illness," the idea that because the illness resulting in absence is caused by maternity it therefore becomes "neglect of duty" is repugnant to law and good morals.

With the expression and spirit of Justice Seabury's opinion The Outlook is in hearty sympathy. We have opposed the ruling of the New York City Board of Education from the view-point of both the school and the home. The chief concern of a school system is education. Those who have opposed the employment of married women on the ground that their places are needed for self-supporting single women seem to us to have missed the point entirely. Schools exist not for the teachers but for the taught.

Those who opposed the employment of married women because child-bearing sometimes incapacitates them for their work as teachers have seemed to us equally astray. The spiritual gain more than offsets the temporary loss of time and service. Teaching is not a purely intellectual pursuit. Not how much a teacher knows, but how much he or she can impart, is the vital question. This ability to give out knowledge comes not only from experience as a teacher, but from experience with life as well. To sacrifice teachers who have grown into their work for the sake of a dogmatic ruling is the height of folly.

The argument that is sometimes brought forward, that the enforced absence of teacher mothers disorganizes the school system, is hardly creditable to our school system nor credible by any one possessing a moderate amount of information or intelligence. There were, we believe, some fifteen cases of absence for motherhood in New York City during the past year. Surely the New York public school system, employing teachers by the thousands, is robust enough to stand such a relatively insignificant loss!

It has been argued, with greater show of reason, that some young mothers cannot maintain the standard of their school work. If this is true, the question whether a mother should retain her position should be decided not by any hard and fast ruling but upon the merits of each individual case. The solution of this problem, where a particularly capable

teacher is concerned, can be found and the interests of both home and school preserved by the granting of a more prolonged leave of absence than is generally deemed necessary.

The opening of the huge water power plant at Hale's Bar, on the Tennessee River, a few miles from Chattanooga, **HARNESSING THE TENNESSEE RIVER** was rightly made the occasion for an elaborate celebration by the citizens of that city, for the harnessing of the Tennessee means that the region surrounding Chattanooga will become one of the largest manufacturing centers in the South. The new plant has a capacity of 60,000 horse-power, which with plants already in operation gives the city an available 200,000 horse-power, according to newspaper reports. A picture of the dam appears on another page.

The North shares the South's satisfaction at the completion of this great engineering project, the more so as it was largely Northern capital that made this completion possible. In 1904 Congress authorized the city of Chattanooga to begin the task of bridling the Tennessee, but provided that if it so desired the municipality might turn the work over to private enterprise. A large part of the \$10,000,000 that was expended in the nine-year undertaking came from the pocket of the late Anthony N. Brady, of New York City, and it was therefore fitting that his two little granddaughters should have thrown the switch that set the big plant in motion.

An incidental result of the conclusion of this enterprise was to render the Tennessee navigable after having been closed to shipping for two years. The dam, which is 1,200 feet in length and of an average height of 52 feet, holds up a lake 30 miles long and lets by a larger volume of water than passes over any other dam on a navigable river in the United States. The powerhouse and lock are on this same titanic scale and are said to be the last word in engineering and building skill. The lock, which is 310 feet long, 60 feet wide, with walls 59 feet in height, is said to be the heaviest lift lock in the world, with one exception. The gates are of steel and are operated by electricity.

Those who directed this triumph of man over natural forces met exasperating difficulties at first. The supposedly solid rock on which the dam was to stand was found to be full of fissures through which it was esti-

mated that 20,000,000 gallons of water escaped daily. After much effort these gaps were stopped by the introduction of large quantities of cement through pipes inserted in holes bored in the rock. The accomplishment of this feat alone was a testimonial to the patience and ingenuity of the engineers, who were in charge of Colonel H. C. Newcomer, of the United States army; Mr. John Bogart, of the Chattanooga and Tennessee River Power Company; and Mr. Thomas E. Murray, of the New York Edison Company.

Perhaps a unique event in international history was the sight last week in New York of

**A PRESIDENT IN
HANDCUFFS** a former President of a sister republic taken to jail handcuffed to a detective.

Interesting international and legal questions are involved in this arrest of General José Santos Zelaya, who was President of Nicaragua for four terms, and whose extradition has now been asked for by that country on a charge of murder and of theft.

Zelaya is said to be a wealthy man, and he declares that his presence in this country is concerned solely with his business affairs, and has no reference to any plots or intention of invading Nicaragua. The authorities there, however, think differently. Zelaya was a dictator and a tyrant rather than a President. He was one of those Central American rulers, like Castro, of Venezuela, whose downfall is the direct result of evil deeds. The charge on which he is arrested for possible extradition is that of having illegally executed (or murdered) two of his fellow-countrymen and of taking with him in his flight from the country money to which he was not entitled. It is doubtful whether he would have been allowed to enter this country, at least without such proceedings as were taken in the case of Castro, if his coming had not been furtive and secret. Like Castro, Zelaya is with good cause an international outcast. Our Government would look with extreme repugnance on any attempt on his part to interfere in Central American affairs.

Among other deeds for which Zelaya is disliked in this country is the execution of two Americans—Cannon and Groce. He is not now formally charged with this crime. It is only just to Zelaya to say that he declares that the two young Americans were adventurers who sold their military service to the best bidder, that they were concerned in an

atrocious attempt to blow up with dynamite a vessel containing troops in a manner contrary to all war, and that they were duly and properly tried by court martial, as the case required. The friends of the young men, however, assert that they had no trial, and that they were executed in a barbarous fashion and one quite contrary to the principles of international law. Much the same defense and much the same charge is made in the case of the Nicaraguans whose execution is made by the present Nicaraguan Government the basis of its demand for Zelaya's extradition.

Nicaragua is, and long has been, a hotbed of revolution and bad government, and so far as the United States can do anything, with due regard to law, to prevent new complications it is justified in such action in behalf of the peace of the continent.

Last week the military rather than the political news from Mexico was of importance.

**THE INSURGENTS
TRIUMPH IN MEXICO** General Villa, by defeating and driving back the Federal attack on Juarez, has not only gained great military reputation for himself, but has, in the opinion of many, become a formidable rival to General Carranza as the insurgent leader.

It will be remembered that General Villa captured Juarez a few weeks ago, not so much by fighting as by strategy and surprise. He at once gathered into the vicinity an army of some seven or eight thousand men with able commanders. When the Federals moved in force on Juarez, with probably a somewhat larger number of men, General Villa advanced south to meet them, and, after what was undoubtedly much the hardest fight and the most extensive military engagement which has taken place for years in Mexico, defeated his enemies and drove them back. The number of men engaged on both sides is variously reckoned at from fourteen to eighteen thousand men. It is impossible to judge accurately the number of killed and wounded. On the part of the insurgents it has been put at some four hundred; undoubtedly it was much larger for the Federals. The latter have retreated to Chihuahua, and at this writing Villa is said to be advancing on that important place, the capital of the State of the same name, with good prospects of seizing it. Chihuahua is about two hundred miles almost directly south of Juarez,

which is almost on the very border between Mexico and the United States, and about seven hundred and fifty miles from Mexico City.

But the insurgents have also obtained successes much nearer to Mexico City. The report that Victoria, in the State of Tamaulipas, had been captured by the insurgents, denied last week, is now confirmed, and the statement is also made that the town was burned to the ground by the insurgents. Victoria is not very far from the east coast, and only one hundred and fifty miles from the Gulf port of Tampico. Insurgents have even been successful in the region south of Tampico, and have created fear of international complications at Tuxpam, another Gulf port about one hundred miles south of Tampico. In this region there are enormous oil-fields, and apparently the owners have been ordered to contribute to the rebel treasury under threats of destruction of their property. They have refused the demand. This has led to a gathering of war-ships at Tuxpam and Tampico, but the latest reports indicate that it will not be necessary for a naval force to be landed to protect the property, although at one time this seemed quite probable. South of Mexico City, Zapata, the insurgent leader or, more accurately, brigand chief, has again been active.

All these and other successes of the insurgents bode ill for Huerta's rule; yet he continues to maintain that he will subdue his opponents. His drastic methods of government are shown by despatches at the end of the week, which declare that he still holds in prison about one hundred members of the former Chamber of Deputies, and that he has now proceeded to the extreme course of throwing them into solitary cells and cutting them off from intercourse with one another and with their friends. For Huerta's own reasons the proposed ratification by the Congress of the recent Congressional elections and the nullification by the same Congress of the Presidential elections (all of which was understood to be the Huerta programme) had not taken place up to November 28.

One of the most interesting features connected with the coronation of the Emperor of Japan, next October, will be an Exhibition to be held in Tokyo, in which such interest is being taken that the original scope has been enlarged to include the entire territory

THE TOKYO EXHIBITION

of Ueno Park—the most popular pleasure-ground in the capital—for exhibition purposes, and it is expected that the entire industrial development of Japan, including Formosa, Korea, and Saghalien, will be shown, and among foreign countries the United States, Great Britain, France, Germany, and Russia have made application for space. The Emperor has made a personal contribution to the expenses of the exhibition, and an Imperial prince is to be its honorary President. One of the most interesting features of the exhibition will be the revelation of Japanese art in many forms; among others, landscape gardening.

In accordance with the Japanese genius, the Exhibition will take on the character of a festival, and all kinds of entertainment will be furnished for the throng of visitors. Baron Sakatani, the able and enterprising Mayor of Tokyo, will head the association formed for this purpose. There will be garden parties, dancing, lantern processions, and many other characteristic Japanese attractions.

It has often been remarked that some of the most interesting and brilliant men in England are Irishmen, and in this group Sir Robert Ball, the Director of the Cambridge Observatory since 1892, held a prominent position. His death at the age of seventy-three ends a career of great industry and distinction. The son of the famous naturalist Robert Ball, born in Dublin, graduating from Trinity College in that city, he spent two years in charge of the famous observatory supported by Lord Rosse, a nobleman devoted to astronomy. After two years of the use of the great telescope, Sir Robert was appointed Professor in the Royal College of Science for Ireland, and later Professor of Mathematics at Trinity College, a position which he held for seven years. Later he became Royal Astronomer of Ireland, a position created by one of the last acts of the old Irish Parliament. Sir Robert's special work while he held this chair was the measurement of the distances between the stars.

He visited this country in the autumn of 1901, and again in 1907. He was a specialist who had the gift of clear, non-technical statement, and he was not afraid of sharing his knowledge with people not technically trained in astronomy. He made many addresses in this country, and his hearty manner, his sim-

plicity of nature, and his command of his subject secured for him large audiences and an attentive and often enthusiastic hearing. He had the gift of humor and was a very delightful companion. On his last visit it was his good fortune to be in this country during one of those very delightful autumns in which all the elements seem to be in harmony, and sunny days succeed one another in long succession. After three months of this weather he said one night that he did not believe in such weather; it was incredible.

He was the recipient of many honors from learned societies; was at various times President of the Royal Astronomical Society; was a Fellow of King's College, Cambridge, and held many honorary degrees from different universities. Among his publications were "The Story of the Heavens," "Time and Tide," and "Star Lands." He liked America and the Americans, and was very cordial in his recognition of the services of American astronomers; his confidence in American education was shown in the fact that he sent one of his sons to the Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

Several years ago the authorities of Buenos Aires, the largest city in Latin America, and the capital of Argentina, became alarmed at the increase of the cost of living.

THE COST OF LIVING IN LATIN AMERICA

As a palliative, they established temporary municipal markets to sell meat and provisions to the public at a slight advance above cost. The authorities also built workmen's houses in order to force down the excessive rents demanded by private landlords.

The Mayor of Lima, the capital and largest city of Peru, is now following this example, so we are informed by the "Mexican Herald," of the City of Mexico. In Peru also there has been much complaint of the increasing cost of living. With regard to meat, as in North America, that commodity had reached such prices at retail as to cause the public greatly to lessen its purchases. Hence Señor Carmona, the Mayor of Lima, called the wholesale meat dealers together, and made it clear to them that he intended to fight any meat trust that might have been organized, even if it should be necessary to purchase meat and sell direct to the public. With regard to bread, Señor Carmona purchased a large quantity of flour, and said that he proposed to utilize the ovens of the peni-

tentiary and sell rolls double the usual size for the same price as for rolls of the ordinary size. The Mayor also ordered a considerable quantity of rice from the northern and more tropical provinces of the republic, which the municipality was to sell to the people at a reduction of forty per cent. With regard to sugar the Mayor pursued the same policy.

All Latin America and all North America will watch with interest the results of this experiment.

Although this is an age of advertising, some of the best work done even to-day is accomplished without "A CLEARING-HOUSE FOR MENTAL DEFECTIVES" flare of trumpet or beating of drums. The work of the "Clearing-House for Mental Defectives" in New York City is an example. Until the Clearing-House opened an exhibit in the Metropolitan Building recently few people knew of its existence, although since the first of the year, when it was established by Commissioner of Public Charities Michael J. Drummond, it has been performing a unique and valuable service to the public in the way of disposing of the question of what to do with the thousands of mental defectives in the city. It has been estimated that there are 15,000 such in Greater New York, and more than 30,000 in the State, while the total number of such unfortunates in State institutions is only 6,000. That means that fully 24,000 are at large, a menace to the community not only through their own irresponsibility but through their freedom to begot other imbeciles.

The Clearing-House, which, as its name implies, receives defectives from hospitals, settlements, churches, courts, private charities, and homes, sending them out to the proper institutions, has recorded one case of an idiot woman who has six feeble-minded children in State institutions. It will cost the State \$5,000 to care for each child till it is sixteen years old!

The most interesting feature of this work to the layman is that performed at the clinics for the examination of suspected defectives. These clinics are held at the New York Post-Graduate Hospital, and are in charge of Dr. Max G. Schlapp, assisted by seven other physicians and three trained psychologists. After the mental age of the patient has been determined by the Binet test, the patient undergoes a physical examination. Then the personal history of the defective and his

family history are secured, and with these data in mind a diagnosis is made and a course of treatment prescribed.

Although it has been conducted as an adjunct of the Department of Public Charities during the ten months of its existence, the Clearing-House has been supported by private bequests; but recently it was decided to petition the Board of Estimate for the sum of \$40,000 to carry on the work in New York City, a petition that should be granted, in the opinion of *The Outlook*.

Stories of heroism are so common in the every-day life of the world that they usually escape any public report.

EVERY-DAY They are as common in that
HEROISM life as they are uncommon in the life which is reported by the daily newspapers.

An incident occurred the other day on the Pennsylvania Railroad which will hearten those who believe that the old chivalry not only persists, but is to be found among all kinds of men. A locomotive engineer, William Carr by name, was in charge of a train from Philadelphia to New York, and when about forty miles from the latter city the steam-chest of his locomotive exploded, and he was instantly enveloped in scalding steam and drenched with boiling water. His agony must have been intense, but it did not for a moment confuse his mind or weaken his will. His duty to the passengers and to the road was evidently the fixed thought in his mind, and that mind acted automatically. Without a moment's hesitation, or thought of himself, he threw his emergency brakes, closed his throttle, and fell unconscious in his cab, thus undoubtedly saving his train from collision with the train immediately ahead of it.

Interviewed by a reporter as he lay on a cot in a hospital, he said, "When I was a young man we were taught that it was an engineer's duty to stick by his engine until he had stalled her. With seven coaches filled with passengers behind me and a train in front, I couldn't very well let her 'run loose,' now could I?" Although Mr. Carr is over sixty years of age, his first question after the temporary bandages were removed was, "How long is this going to keep me from work?"

Two qualities which make great workmen are combined in this man: the deepest

sense of responsibility and a passionate love of his job. These are the qualities which make artists of artisans and lift work above drudgery.

WHAT CAN BE DONE ABOUT MEXICO?

Week before last we urged that the United States invite the co-operation of Chile, Brazil, and the Argentine Republic in a movement to put an end to assassination and anarchy in Mexico, to restore order and peace in that unhappy country, and make possible the establishment of a permanent government by the people themselves in a protectorate in which the people of the Latin race should take the lead. We last week published a paragraph from a recent book by Hiram Bingham which seemed to us to give support indirectly, and therefore all the more forcibly, to this policy. A few weeks ago we called attention to the suggestion of Mr. Sherrill, former United States Minister to Argentina, that in any difficulty involving the Monroe Doctrine and calling for intervention the United States invite the co-operation of other countries of this hemisphere. Mr. John Barrett, Director-General of the Pan-American Union, has repeatedly urged such action. Our attention has now been called by a correspondent to an address delivered by Rear-Admiral C. M. Chester at various times and places during the last year in which, without mentioning Mexico, he gives support to the same doctrine in the following words:

On the fifteenth day of November, 1894, the fifth year of the foundation of the Republic of Brazil, in the presence of the representatives of the principal American republics, including the United States, was laid in the city of Rio de Janeiro the corner-stone of a monument to American solidarity. Under this stone this official record lies: "The monument which will be erected on the spot in which this stone is laid, and which will symbolize the political union of the different nations of the continent of Columbus, will be surmounted by the figure of James Monroe, author of the celebrated doctrine known by his name, which teaches that the nations of the new continent should unite for the purpose of preventing any undue interference of the nations of Europe in the internal affairs of America. Around the principal figure will be grouped the great national liberators of America—Washington, Jefferson, Juarez, Toussaint L'Ouverture, Bolivar, José Bonifacio, and Benjamin Constant."

We cannot, however, with propriety, form an "alliance," for that word has been tabooed by an unwritten law of the land, but we can engage

in an "*entente*," as foreigners call it, with the republics of South America that will give them a share in the responsibility of maintaining a policy which looks to the general good of all parties concerned. Let us form, then, not an alliance, but a concert of action after the principles of the Monroe Doctrine, which will show that all the states at interest hold the same opinion regarding this doctrine, and the moral effect of such an *entente* will be sufficient to stay the hand of any European nation which may seek political annexation of American territory.

The opinions expressed at the Clark University Conference week before last, and reported in editorial correspondence in another place in this number of *The Outlook*, are a further confirmation of our belief that such concerted action should be invited.

The cordial welcome given in the Argentine Republic to Mr. Roosevelt's suggestion that the Argentine Republic join with the United States "as a sponsor and guarantor of the Monroe Doctrine" indicates that the southern republics are ready for such an *entente* as Admiral Chester suggests, and might not improbably be willing to co-operate in a movement for the protection of the Mexican people as well as of foreign residents from the terrible condition in which they are now plunged.

A SUGGESTION FOR CHRISTMAS

When colonists went out from Greece in the early days, they carried fire from the home altars to kindle fires on new altars in new temples far from home, so that the ties that bound them to one another and to the gods dear to their race might not be severed. This sense of unity knit widely severed kindred and widely separated classes together to the very verge of the commercial age. In the darkest days of feudalism society was bound together by obligations that rested on the overlord quite as definitely as on the serf. This sense of responsibility for general welfare has largely been lost, and for many employers the single obligation has been to pay the wages at the end of the week, and for many employees the only duty has been to give so many hours of work a day with small regard to thoroughness or competency.

This severance of class from class, this dissolution of the ties that ran from the top to the bottom of society, shows itself in community life. Most American cities are aggregations of houses, without architectural unity

or beauty, without a community consciousness of common needs and opportunities. The conception of a community as a home, in which the interests of a family are to be fostered, is just beginning to take root in this country; and there are still many to whom playgrounds, free baths, open-air music, are "fads" of impractical reformers. We are just beginning to understand how interesting and wholesome life in small communities and in large cities may be made by treating the town or the city as a home and not simply as a political unit. There are cities in Germany in which the streets, made beautiful by flowers, have a park-like effect, and by thought and a very moderate expenditure of money the poorest citizens have the means of enjoyment brought within their reach and a share in life offered them as well as a chance of making a living.

There are many beautiful towns in this country, and a few cities are planning to secure beauty in the future, and there is also a dawning consciousness of what community life may be, of the possibilities of co-operative action in normal ways for common ends. A few years ago there was a pageant in an old and beautiful English town. The history of a thousand years and more was illustrated in a series of dramatic and pictorial representations of incidents and events in the history of the locality. The pageant was seen by thousands of people on the very ground where many of the events had taken place. More than two thousand people took part in the representations; every class in the community was deeply interested, from the Lord Lieutenant of the county to the boys who drove the butchers' carts. For three months, during a rainy spring and summer, they had rehearsed together, recalling again and together the long history of the locality in which they lived. The educational value of such a community action, and the interest and pleasure it brings into the life of a town, are incalculable.

The new forms of celebrating the Fourth of July which have been worked out in many communities have not only been life-saving devices but have interested hosts of people, drawn them together, and given them the sense of having common interests and sharing in common life. Why cannot Christmas, the most beautiful of all the great festivals in its human quite as much as in its divine significance, be made an occasion for bringing home the truth that the town or the city is a

great home? The festival has a universal significance, a meaning for the non-Christian as well as the Christian. The churches will celebrate it in their own way; families will make it beautiful with remembrances and reunions; why should not communities unite in some common observance of the festival of peace and good will to all mankind? Steps toward this end have already been taken in several cities. There was a noble Christmas tree in Madison Square in New York last year, and great crowds listened with delight to choirs singing Christmas carols and to bells chiming in church towers. These community celebrations may take different forms, but they would furnish sorely needed opportunities of bringing all people together in a normal, neighborly way.

EDWIN ARLINGTON ROBINSON

Most of our impressions and opinions are transmitted to us, and expressed by us, through the medium of conventional symbols—symbols which are not single words, as we generally imagine, but rather groups of phrases, pendent upon some time-worn idea. Mention a familiar phrase, and its associate phrases troop through our minds with an alacrity which we flatter ourselves is due to our native intellectual alertness, but which, in fact, is no more to be counted to our credit than the act of falling down the stairs. The mental pigeonholes in which we keep these ready-to-wear and “just as good” substitutes for original thought are tightly locked against all freshness and innovation. They open willingly only to those thoughts which come swaddled in conventional garb, and are guaranteed neither to alarm nor annoy. For no form of human utterance is this more true than for poetry. Those consummately commonplace and sentimental verses of Tennyson upon which so much of his popularity is based, and from which his real fame so justly suffers, furnish typical examples of the use of these thought-symbols as a pass-key to immediate acceptance.

Two other recourses there are for the poet who seeks an audience. He can batter down, as Browning did, the walls we have erected to preserve our self-sufficient complacency, or, as Francis Thompson is doing, with the help of time he can permeate our consciousness by a kind of spiritual or intel-

lectual osmosis, that curious physical process by which two liquids of different densities interpenetrate through a common barrier.

It is by this latter process that Edwin Arlington Robinson will eventually receive the wider recognition he so richly deserves. The most individual of American poets, he combines intensity of thought and of feeling with a curious simplicity of actual expression which sometimes baffles even his most ardent admirers. In a dozen lines he can sum up the tragedy of a whole life and tell the story so directly and succinctly that the reader is hardly aware of the searching wisdom, the vision, and the understanding which lie in every calmly chiseled phrase. Typical of his work are these brief verses from “The Children of the Night,” one of Mr. Robinson’s earlier volumes:

RICHARD CORY

Whenever Richard Cory went downtown
We people on the pavement looked at him:
He was a gentleman from sole to crown,
Clean favored, and imperially slim.

And he was always quietly arrayed,
And he was always human when he talked;
But still he fluttered pulses when he said,
“Good-morning,” and he glittered when he walked.

And he was rich,—yes, richer than a king,—
And admirably schooled in every grace:
In fine, we thought that he was everything
To make us wish that we were in his place.

So on we worked, and waited for the light,
And went without the meat, and cursed the bread;
And Richard Cory, one calm summer night,
Went home and put a bullet through his head.

The words he uses are the words of ordinary speech, put together sometimes in cadences that seem close to actual prose, yet so subtly combined that their half-hidden yet characteristic rhythm conveys to the attentive ear much of the story and most of the underlying emotion. He does not tear a passion to tatters. His method and manner are more that of Owen Wister’s “Virginian” when he quietly drawled, “When you call me that, smile.” Mr. Robinson is an austere poet, austere in his attitude toward himself and towards his art, yet those who find his poetry cold and distant have little comprehension of its fundamental purpose.

Elsewhere in this number appear a poem by Mr. Robinson, one of the few which he has written in recent years, and a photograph of a portrait of the poet painted by Mr. William Sherman Potts.

LETTERS TO UNKNOWN FRIENDS

In a sermon entitled "The Unrealized Presence of God" a local pastor recently declared that every aspiration of the soul after a worthy life, every sentiment of honor or love of righteousness, every self-denying love, etc., were due to the presence of God in the soul, whether the person experiencing these sentiments be conscious of the fact or not; and he added that in obeying these impulses he was following Christ unconsciously, and prophesied that eternity would reveal a vast number of these unconscious Christians, though their names were not on the roll of church membership, nor had they made any "profession of religion." A certain member of the church was deeply grieved at this statement, saying that multitudes of "moral" men would be influenced to rest easy as to their religious condition, when in reality they are not saved at all. He added that no one could be saved who did not make a profession of faith and unite with the church.

Do you think the preacher was correct in his statement?

Paul answers this question in the second chapter of Romans in the saying that God "will render to every man according to his deeds: to them who by patient continuance in well doing seek for glory and honor and immortality, eternal life." No condition is attached in this statement by Paul except an honest and sincere seeking for the highest spiritual life, not by creeds or ceremonies or externalities of any description, but by patient continuance in acting according to one's conscience. Isaiah answers this question in the fifty-fifth chapter, in saying: "Let the wicked forsake his way, and the unrighteous man his thoughts: and let him return unto the Lord, and he will have mercy upon him; and to our God, for he will abundantly pardon." The condition in phraseology is different, but in spirit is the same. Isaiah makes the condition of pardon no form or ceremony or creed of any description, but simply an honest, sincere, simple-hearted turning to God for forgiveness of the past and newness of life for the future, as the prodigal returned to his father in the story which Jesus told. Life confirms the saying of Paul and of Isaiah. Salvation is character. And character is determined not by creeds or observances of any description, but by sincere obedience to conscience in a life of love, and by simple fellowship with the Father in a life of obedience to his will. "What doth the Lord require of thee," says Micah, "but to do justly, and to love mercy, and to walk humbly with thy God?" When the church

requires more than this, it requires more than God requires.

1. What exactly do you mean in closing a prayer by the expression "for Jesus' sake"?

2. How do you reconcile the parable of the Prodigal Son, as told by our Lord, with the doctrine of justification as proclaimed by Paul and re-echoed in church creeds, notably in that of the Presbyterians?

3. To what extent should prayer be offered to our Lord Jesus Christ?

1. When a soldier enlists in the army he dedicates himself to the service of his country, and in offering his life offers everything he has. The disciple of Christ is a soldier who dedicates himself to the work which Christ is doing in the world, and in this dedication offers all that he has and all that he is to that service. When he prays "for Jesus' sake," what he means, or ought to mean, is that he desires the thing for which he has asked in order that he may better render that service to which he has dedicated himself. So, in the Lord's Prayer, Jesus begins it with the petition, "Thy kingdom come, thy will be done on earth as it is in heaven;" so, in his own prayer, recorded in the seventeenth chapter of St. John, he closes it with the petition "that the love wherewith thou hast loved me may be in them, and I in them;" so, in his prayer in Gethsemane, he prays, "Not my will, but thine, be done." It is a grievous mistake to suppose that the phrase "in the name of Jesus Christ" or "for Jesus' sake" implies that God has no love for his children but only grants their requests because of his love for Another. It implies that all our requests should be in tune with the fundamental and dominating desire of our hearts for the kingdom of God, that our lives should be loyal to the Master whom we follow and to his service to which we have pledged ourselves.

2. The parable of the Prodigal Son is Christ's interpretation of the Gospel. Any interpretation that is inconsistent with that parable may safely be rejected. That parable certainly implies that any one who has done wrong, and by his wrong-doing has separated himself from his Father, may return and be reconciled to his Father, and by his Father's love may be recovered to himself, without any other condition than a sincere sorrow for, and practical abandonment of, his wrong-doing, and a sincere desire for a renewal of filial relations with his Father in his Father's home. I do not believe that this

is inconsistent with Paul's teaching. On the contrary, I believe it is confirmed by Paul's teaching.

3. The answer to your question is found in John v. 23: "All men should honor the Son, even as they honor the Father. He that honoreth not the Son honoreth not the Father which hath sent him." It is impossible for me to conceive that God could be jealous of Jesus Christ, or should close any door of approach to himself. Prayer involves some measure of imagination. We have to form in our mind some conception of Him whom we are addressing. Believing, as I do, that the invisible God is manifested in the visible life of Jesus of Nazareth, I see no reason why I may not call up this image which he has furnished to me of himself, and bring my requests to him as the disciples brought

their requests to him while he was on the earth. No sincere seeking of help from or fellowship with the Father can be unacceptable to him which is brought to him through the medium which he himself has given to us, that we might easier have access to him.

What is the meaning of the statement in the letter to the church in Philadelphia in Revelation iii. 8: "Behold, I have set before thee an open door, and no man can shut it"?

The meaning is that to this church was given an opportunity for service as a reward for the fact that it had not denied the Master's name, and had been patient in time of severe trial. The reward which Christ promises to his followers for faithful service in time of trial is an opportunity to render more service in a larger and wider field.

LYMAN ABBOTT.

ALL-AMERICA

EDITORIAL CORRESPONDENCE FROM THE CLARK UNIVERSITY CONFERENCE

WE Americans are highly amused by the Englishman who imagines that Niagara Falls are in a suburb of New York City, and that any American family that ventures to live in the open country is in some danger of attack by savage Indians; yet we see nothing funny in the fact that most of our fellow-countrymen would have to look into an atlas to find out whether Montevideo is a Brazilian mountain or an independent republic of Central America. As one of the speakers at the Conference at Clark University week before last said, the only thing which the word Chile suggests to most Americans is *chilli con carne*. Our ignorance about our neighbors to the south of us is less excusable than the Englishman's ignorance about the United States, because this country has for a hundred years recognized its close connection with the republics of Latin America, has in turn been for them a model upon which they have molded their Constitutions, and has had in addition to political reasons most cogent commercial reasons for intelligent and friendly acquaintance with them.

Just at this juncture, when our relations with Mexico, on account of the turmoil in that country, have reached a critical condition, there is new evidence spread daily before our eyes of the need of such friendly

acquaintance. This is not merely, not even chiefly, evidence that we should be on friendly footing with the people of Mexico, but evidence that we should understand all of Latin America. If we act foolishly or stupidly in our dealings with Mexico at this time, or even if we merely fail to recognize in our actions the interest which other republics in this hemisphere have in this crisis, we shall suffer the consequences that always befall one who has unfriendly neighbors. The Western Hemisphere is our neighborhood. The United States cannot move out of it. Every dictate of common sense should impel us to do all that we can to make that a pleasant neighborhood in which to live. And the first thing necessary in order to do that is to know something about it.

It was for the purpose of gathering information upon Latin America that the Conference was held at Clark University, Worcester, Massachusetts, week before last. This was the successor of other conferences held under the same auspices. This is the fifth time the Conference has been held. Last year it was devoted to conditions in China. In 1911 it was devoted to Japanese-American relations. Each time it has been devoted to some aspect of foreign relations or dependencies. Each year it has justified itself by the character of the men it has assembled and by the

value of the papers read and the addresses made. To use the term of the football field, the team that has played at each Conference has been of splendid material, but its effectiveness has been due not only to its members, but to the head coach, Professor George H. Blakeslee, of Clark University. He knows the fundamentals of the game. As *The Outlook* pointed out in connection with an article of his which it recently published, Professor Blakeslee has not merely a theoretical acquaintance with international affairs, but the practical knowledge that comes from intelligent travel. This year Professor Blakeslee built up his team about the subject of Latin America, and he won a great victory.

The general subject there considered may be divided into three parts: first, and of most immediately timely interest, Mexico; second, the characteristics of the several Latin-American republics; and, third, the Monroe Doctrine.

In the discussion on Mexico, the participants included a Mexican, Señor Cabrera, who is a supporter of the insurgent general Carranza; an American, Dr. John Howland, long a resident in Mexico and president of a college there; and Americans, including Mr. S. W. Reynolds, formerly President of the Mexican Central Railway Company, John Hays Hammond, the eminent mining engineer, and L. C. Wells, Professor at Clark University, who by study, travel, and business relationships have special knowledge of the country. Perhaps the most pressing question with regard to Mexico is whether the United States ought to intervene. It was interesting to note that the two men whose knowledge of Mexico was acquired through their interest in property there were both emphatically against armed intervention. With their conclusion agreed the representative of the Mexican revolutionists. The most solemn warning against the spirit of aggression that would lead to military interference on the part of the United States was uttered by Mr. John Barrett, Director-General of the Pan-American Union, that unique international organization of which the twenty-one republics of the hemisphere are members. At the same time the consensus of opinion seems clearly to be that some definite action on the part of the United States was not only permissible but necessary. The suggestion that the United States invite to co-operative action, with reference to Mexico, the three great South American republics known as the "A B C countries,"

Argentina, Brazil, and Chile, was repeated in one form or another, both by implication and explicitly. Military intervention by the United States alone, however, was regarded, it might be said, without dissent, as uncalled for, and by some was regarded as inevitably leading to the alienation of all Latin America from us. As to the merits of the revolution there was a difference of opinion. On the one hand, the existence of revolution in Mexico was set forth as a sign of vitality in that people. As one speaker expressed it, no people ever became great through patient endurance of injustice. On the other hand, the existence of the revolution in Mexico was attributed to the lack of a strong man, such as President Diaz, in the presidency. There was also difference of opinion as to whether there had been real advance in Mexico during the past thirty years under the régime of Diaz. These differences of opinion were not ultimately a difference in report of fact, but a difference in the interpretation of fact. Those who believed that security for property, outward conditions of order and stability, and the exercise of control by governmental authority are the principal standards of progress seemed to be inclined to take a dark view of the Mexican situation; but those who regarded the willingness of a people to suffer for ideas, the growth of demand for equal treatment under the law, and the ambition on the part of those who have been under oppression to get rid of their burdens as the real standard of progress seemed to take a more hopeful view. So far as the establishment of law and order is concerned, "the strong man" seems to have done little of permanent value; on the whole, however, the impression left by the discussion was that Mexico was on its way upward. It is impossible here to devote the space necessary for any detailed statement of the facts as to Mexico that were reported at the Conference. It must suffice to say that no hearer of this discussion could have left it without a new understanding of the people of Mexico and of their problems, or without a new sense of responsibility on the part of the United States toward that now unhappy country.

With reference to the characteristics of Latin-American republics there was a wealth of information. On this aspect of the general subject of the Conference the most noteworthy contribution was perhaps that of the Minister from Peru, Señor Don Federico Alfonso Pezet. He set forth with illumi-

nating clearness the contrast between the early settlers of the United States and the early settlers of Latin America, between the purposes of the one people and the purposes of the other, between the two kinds of environment which they respectively encountered, and between the types of civilization and government which they respectively represented. The one people came to this hemisphere to build homes, encountered a savage race, and brought with them the elements of free government; the other people came as militarists to conquer and exploit, they encountered tribes of a semi-civilized character, who afforded a field for bloody conquest and exploitation, and they brought with them the ideas of mediæval Spain. It is against the disadvantages of their inheritance that the Latin-American republics have had to struggle and still have to struggle. Certainly, said Señor Pezet, no worse conditions were ever provided for the basis of nationality. It is this history of Latin America that explains the frequency of revolution and disorder in Latin-American republics. It is because the United States has not had this history that its people have misunderstood their Latin-American neighbors. Señor Pezet's address made a great impression, not so much because it stated facts that were unknown as because it presented those facts in a form that led to understanding.

Other addresses and papers contributed to this understanding. One especially should be mentioned. It was the account which Dr. Jacob H. Hollander, Professor of Political Economy in Johns Hopkins University, and formerly Treasurer of Porto Rico, gave of what is known as the Dominican Convention. Most readers, I hope, remember something about this: how San Domingo got into debt, how foreign creditors demanded payment, how the President arranged with the Dominican Government to have Americans put in charge of the Custom-House of San Domingo, and how, as a result, the debt is being paid out of the customs, in installments, the revenue of San Domingo has been larger than ever before, and a chronic state of revolution has given place to almost continuous peace and prosperity because the chief cause of revolution has been withdrawn. Dr. Hollander was the Special Commissioner Plenipotentiary to San Domingo during this period, and was responsible for the administration of this arrangement. His account of it was clear and convincing be-

cause it dealt with facts. It is unfortunate that the United States does not habitually maintain a continuous foreign policy, and that it is likely to be whimsical in changing, with a change in administrations, what has been begun. This has been in certain particulars the case in San Domingo; but, as Dr. Hollander pointed out, conditions can never go back to where they were before. This settlement of the San Domingo question has been one of the not too numerous instances in which the participation of the United States in Latin-American affairs has combined enlightened unselfishness with efficiency.

The most picturesque discussion of this phase of Latin-American problems, or rather problems in Latin America, was that furnished by Mr. W. D. Boyce, of Chicago, who not only furnished entertainment and refreshment by his irrepressible humor, but also outlined with imagination the picture of a great free port in the Panama zone. There, he said, the United States might establish a great international department store, to which goods would be brought from Europe and put in warehouses for the buyers of South America. He showed how this might be done by following the example of the free ports already established, such as Hamburg and Hongkong. These are ports where goods may be brought and transhipped without the payment of duty. Mr. Boyce believes that if the United States dealt with this subject intelligently it could create a city extending along the Canal from ocean to ocean, an unrivaled center of international trade. This is not a novel suggestion, but it was presented in this case in a novel and effective way.

Most fruitful of discussion at the Conference was the subject of the Monroe Doctrine. As often happens, the widest differences of opinion seem to be over a matter of words. There were those who mightily attacked the Monroe Doctrine as "an obsolete shibboleth," to use the phrase of Professor Hiram Bingham, of Yale, and as a constant menace to the maintenance of our good relations with Latin America as well as to our security from complications with European affairs. There were those, on the other hand, who defended the Monroe Doctrine not only as a sound policy for the time when it was declared, but also as a principle of action as sound to-day as ever.

To one hearer at least this apparently

irreconcilable difference of opinion seemed to disappear when a comparison was made in the substance rather than in the words of what the two sides said. It seemed to be the name "Monroe Doctrine" rather than the thing itself which set spears at rest and battle-axes brandishing. If one is to define the Monroe Doctrine, as it virtually was defined there by one speaker, as the general foreign policy of the United States, certainly all might admit that it ought to be reformed. If one is to regard the Monroe Doctrine as literally and strictly confined to the ideas that President Monroe and John Quincy Adams had when that doctrine was first declared, all might readily admit that it ought to be changed. It does not seem, however, that the Monroe Doctrine need be treated in any different way from that in which we treat, say, for example, the Constitution. The words of the Constitution have a different significance now from what they had when they were first written; they apply to a different kind of life. That does not make us abandon our Constitution.

The Monroe Doctrine is the declaration of the United States that it should consider any attempt on the part of European Powers to extend their system to any portion of this hemisphere as dangerous to the peace and safety of the United States, and that it could not view any interposition for the purpose of oppressing the independent governments of this hemisphere, or controlling, in any other manner, their destiny, by any European power, in any other light than as the manifestation of an unfriendly disposition towards the United States.

The objection to the Monroe Doctrine seems to be that it makes the United States arrogate to itself the supreme place in this hemisphere, that its maintenance by us gives offense to our Latin-American neighbors, that there is no more occasion for our insisting on it, since no European powers want to oppress Latin-American republics, that it tends to make the weaker republics take refuge behind the United States when they want to act irresponsibly toward European peoples, that the only powers that would have any chance of extending their systems to the New World would be Great Britain and Germany, both of whom have much better forms of government than any Latin-American republic they would be likely to dominate, and that the only practical reason for maintaining the Monroe

Doctrine would be our interest in the Panama Canal, and we could defend our interest there without the Monroe Doctrine just as well as with it.

Of course some of these arguments are inconsistent with others. For example, if it is not agreeable to our Latin-American neighbors for us to maintain the Monroe Doctrine, it certainly would not be agreeable to any of them for us to drop it on the ground that the conquest of them by a European power would tend to their improvement. Really, what the opponents of the Monroe Doctrine were driving at was the idea that it was no longer necessary for the United States to stand alone in defense of all the republics to the south, that it ought not to stand as policeman of the hemisphere with a club with which it could administer correction to such nations as Argentina, Brazil, and Chile. When that became clear in the Conference at Clark University, everybody breathed a sigh of relief and agreed. Those who had been arguing against the Monroe Doctrine and those who argued for it united in the belief that the attitude of the United States toward its southern neighbors should be, not that of the schoolmaster, but that of the neighbor indeed, and that in particular it ought to be ready to join with such countries as Argentina, Brazil, and Chile in any action that is in the common interest of the peoples of the New World. All agreed that the United States has been too slow in reaching this point. It was pointed out, for example, that Argentina, Brazil, and Chile, unlike the great powers of Europe, have shown a willingness to co-operate with the United States with respect to Mexico by refusing to recognize Huerta; and that we have apparently done nothing in appreciation of their co-operation.

This idea that the United States can unite with at least the "A B C countries" in any matter that calls for intervention in a South American republic may be called an abandonment of the Monroe Doctrine. Let those who think it is call it so. There are others who think that it is a natural evolution of the Monroe Doctrine. It does not, after all, matter so much what it is called. Professor Hart, of Harvard, suggested that we call it the Blakeslee Doctrine, and he put it somewhat as follows:

1. No European international conferences on American affairs.
2. The special interest of the United States

in its near neighbors, and special pains to consider their interest.

3. The Drago doctrine—a bar to the attempt to collect debts at the expense of human life.

4. Readiness to call on other powers in the Western Hemisphere.

5. Insistence upon the rule that those countries which are incapable of taking care of themselves must be taken care of by those that are competent.

Professor Hart pointed out that this doctrine bore a considerable resemblance to the Monroe Doctrine, and, like that doctrine, was a doctrine of peace. As Mr. Charles H. Sherrill, former United States Minister to Argentina, pointed out, the United States must follow the Monroe Doctrine (or, we might add, the same doctrine under another name) if we are not to have in this hemisphere an Algiers or a Morocco.

Much was said about our commercial rela-

tionship with South America. Most of it was not particularly flattering to American business sense. There is reason, as was pointed out, for our inertia with respect to our relations with South America both politically and commercially. We have been so busy with building up our own country, and with carrying on the enormous trade we have between the States, that we have not given our minds to South America. The opening of the Panama Canal is going to bring in another era. We have got to think about the people to the south of us. The Clark University Conference, by bringing together and making public this information about those neighbors of ours, has done a great deal to start us thinking about Latin America with friendliness and intelligence.

ERNEST HAMLIN ABBOTT.

EDUCATING A DEMOCRACY

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE

IT is nothing unusual for nations to study each other's institutions, helping themselves without restraint to such ideas as they deem worthy of appropriation. Germany recently sent a commission to the United States to learn the secret of America's continued success in international athletics, and China now has a commission here studying our coinage system. We, in turn, have never hesitated to take suggestions from abroad; but for some reason we have been strangely loth to imitate our own examples. The several States of the Union have long been wont to pride themselves on anything that stamped them as different from the others, and it is only recently that they have begun to study the social and political systems of their neighbors with an eye to self-improvement.

A very unusual instance of the new spirit of sympathy and co-operation between the people of different States was given at Philadelphia last month in the two-day conference between several representatives of the State of Wisconsin and a body of citizens of Pennsylvania. In the Wisconsin party were President Charles R. Van Hise, of the State University; Deans Louis E. Reber and Lois Kimball Mathews, of the same institution; and Dr. Charles McCarthy, librarian of the State Legislative Reference Department, who

has had a strong hand in the formation of that body of democratic legislation built up at the State capital at Madison within the last few years which is the expression of what has come to be known as "the Wisconsin idea."

The Wisconsin delegation went to Philadelphia for two purposes: first, to study scientific management with Mr. Frederick W. Taylor—the chief exponent of that system—which the Westerners hope to introduce in their University; and, second, to return the call of 121 men and women from Pennsylvania, most of them Philadelphians, who traveled to Madison last May to absorb the Wisconsin idea, and particularly that part of it expressed in the carrying of education to the people who are unable to go to college and get it—in short, the method that is somewhat pedantically called "university extension." The Philadelphia "Pilgrims," as they named themselves, had reached the conclusion that one cause of the misgovernment from which their city and State had suffered so much was the ignorance of the people. What their State needed, they felt, was increased efficiency throughout the social fabric, in agriculture, industry, commerce, and government. "The first element in efficiency is knowledge," said they, "practical knowledge that will enable the people to

meet the problems of every-day life." The question was, How could this knowledge best be imparted to the people?

A few members of the Philadelphia City Club heard how a democracy was being educated in Wisconsin, and, under the leadership of Mayor Blankenburg, they organized a party which went to the Western State and for nearly a week sat at the feet of the Wisconsin faculty in the class-room or in the tan-bark arena of the "short-horn" agricultural students. The Pilgrims found that Wisconsin was applying an educational method which, originating at Oxford, had been assimilated by the University of Pennsylvania a quarter of a century ago, and from there passed on to other American colleges, being taken up at Wisconsin and so broadened and otherwise improved as to be hardly recognizable.

It is the Wisconsin theory that democracy is based upon equal opportunity, and that it is the function of a State university to offer equal opportunity in education to all. If the citizen can't come to the college, the college should go to the citizen, has been the view of President Van Hise since he took office eleven years ago. Beginning in a humble way, with the aid of a small appropriation from the State Legislature, correspondence courses were started and lecturers were sent out among the public; later, vocational continuation schools were begun and "package" libraries circulated among the people. Steadily the work has grown in scope and steadily the annual appropriations have increased, until now there are few subjects of practical importance that aren't covered under one phase or another of the university extension. In 1911 a law was passed requiring apprentices between the ages of fourteen and sixteen to attend school five hours a week out of the time of their employers. The instruction given them includes not only such practical knowledge as the use of safety devices, but English, business practice, physiology, and civics. Because a boy starts as a brick-layer, believe the Wisconsin educators, is no reason that he should end as one; and accordingly he is taught something of architecture as well as of administrative principles, in order that he may hope to join the ranks of the brain-workers some day.

The Department of Public Discussion and Debate is one of the marvels of modern teaching science. In response to queries from residents of the State this department

sends out pamphlets and books on subjects that range all the way from the initiative and referendum to child-rearing and the principles of eugenics.

Of course more instructors are demanded by this campaign of wholesale education than can be supplied from the Faculty at Madison, and indeed many of the teaching force of the extension system rarely see the campus of the State University. In this class are the itinerant teachers of agriculture, who are assigned each to a particular county and provided with a motor-cycle as a means of locomotion. These men go from farm to farm advising and encouraging the farmers, and on Saturdays and Sundays they can usually be found in the county seats conducting free-for-all open-air courses in agriculture. In winter these "motor-cycle professors" teach in the county agricultural training schools, which are supported entirely by the counties.

These are only a few of the unusual and picturesque features of the Wisconsin scheme of higher education—a system based on the belief that knowledge is power, and that this power may safely be intrusted to every member of a commonwealth and not left to a fortunate few comprising an "aristocracy of education," as was done in Europe in the Middle Ages, and as is unfortunately done to a lesser degree in many so-called civilized communities to-day. Wisconsin has revived the old Athenian assumption that "the State exists for the perfection of the individual."

The task of introducing these new ideas in Pennsylvania is much more difficult than it was to start the movement in the Badger State. In the first place, Pennsylvania has three times as many inhabitants as Wisconsin and has nearly a dozen universities to the one at Madison. It is true that not all of these are State institutions, but at least two of those that are not—namely, Pittsburgh University and the University of Pennsylvania—receive some aid from the body politic. Then there is the natural conservatism of the older commonwealth to be overcome; but perhaps the greatest obstacle of all is found in the heterogeneity of the population, which is composed of four distinguishable and dissocial elements: the peace-loving descendants of the old Quakers; the bluestocking class—the "cavaliers," as they are called; the great mass of Germans and "Low Dutch;" and the independent band of Scotch-Irish living mainly west of the Alleghenies. Before an

"educated democracy" can be built up in Pennsylvania the strong individualism of these factions must be overcome.

Despite the difficulties of the task that they have undertaken, however, the original "Pilgrims" have been greatly heartened by the extent to which their plan has already been grasped by the public imagination. Educators from all parts of the Keystone State attended the dinner given as one of the functions of the Philadelphia synod, and promised to do their part in the fight for extensional education. At a mass-meeting after the dinner eight hundred persons crowded into the ball-room of the Bellevue-Stratford Hotel and unanimously passed a resolution calling for the establishment of a bureau to serve as a clearing-house of instruction—receiving information from the universities and diffusing it among the people. This bureau, it is hoped, will also co-ordinate the work that is already being done by Pittsburgh University and by the State University. The former institution is now conducting thirteen centers in and near Pittsburgh, where instruction is given in economics, sociology, literature, mining, etc., while the latter maintains correspondence courses in agriculture, apprentice schools of engineering at Altoona, Harrisburg, and West Philadelphia, as well as courses for miners in geography and geology, carried on during the summer months in several mining towns.

The climax of the visit of the Western delegation to Philadelphia came at a luncheon on the second day of the congress. The original plan was to hold this luncheon in one of the rooms of the Curtis Publishing Company, but so great was the demand for tickets that an entire floor of the Walton Hotel was thrown open to the horde of men and women eager to hear the post-prandial discussion of ways and means for "lighting up the State."

The most inspiring feature of the convention was the atmosphere of amicable co-operation between members of two great commonwealths. While the Wisconsin representatives were placed by their hosts in the position of oracles whose every word on the subject of public instruction deserved implicit faith, they did not forget that they had something to learn. The veteran and kindly President Van Hise, Dean Reber, self-contained and ever courteous, and Dr. McCarthy, whose combative and prognathic face wears the same fierce aspect when he is denouncing "special interests" to-day that it

wore when he played full-back for Brown University years ago, found time to inspect several model mills with Mr. Taylor, the efficiency expert.

If Pennsylvania succeeds in raising the educational standard of her masses, other States may well follow her. The unfortunate tendency on the part of some of our colleges and universities, particularly in the East, to make education a thing of class and caste is fraught with dangerous possibilities. It is a fact that the only reciprocation between town and gown is carried on, in the case of many colleges, by gratuitous efforts of students through such organizations as the Young Men's Christian Association and good government clubs.

If a university is to mean anything, it must bear some direct relation to life. One of the benefits a college derives from participation in extension work is the galvanization of the members of its teaching force. No university or college can have its proper place as the focus of the forces that advance civilization while its faculty is dominated by the dry-as-dust type of professor, theory-ridden and hidebound.

Think what the universal dissemination of knowledge might mean. In his address to the Pennsylvania Pilgrims last May President Van Hise said: "We know enough about agriculture so that the agricultural production of the country could be doubled if the knowledge were applied. We know enough about disease so that if the knowledge were utilized infectious and contagious disease would be substantially destroyed in the United States—and that within a score of years. We know enough about eugenics so that if that knowledge were applied the defective classes would disappear within a generation. Similarly in other fields our knowledge has expanded far beyond its utilization."

The German philosopher Humboldt was right when he said, "Whatever you put into the State you must first put into the schools." The day is past, however, when a grammar school education is sufficient equipment for a boy or girl beginning life's journey; and the high school and college as they are now administered do not stop the gap, inasmuch as about eighty per cent of the youth of the land never reach high school or college. The broad extension system, so successful in Wisconsin, seems to be the best method of reaching this eighty per cent.

GREGORY MASON.

Current Events Pictorially Treated



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THE ATTACK ON JUAREZ, MEXICO

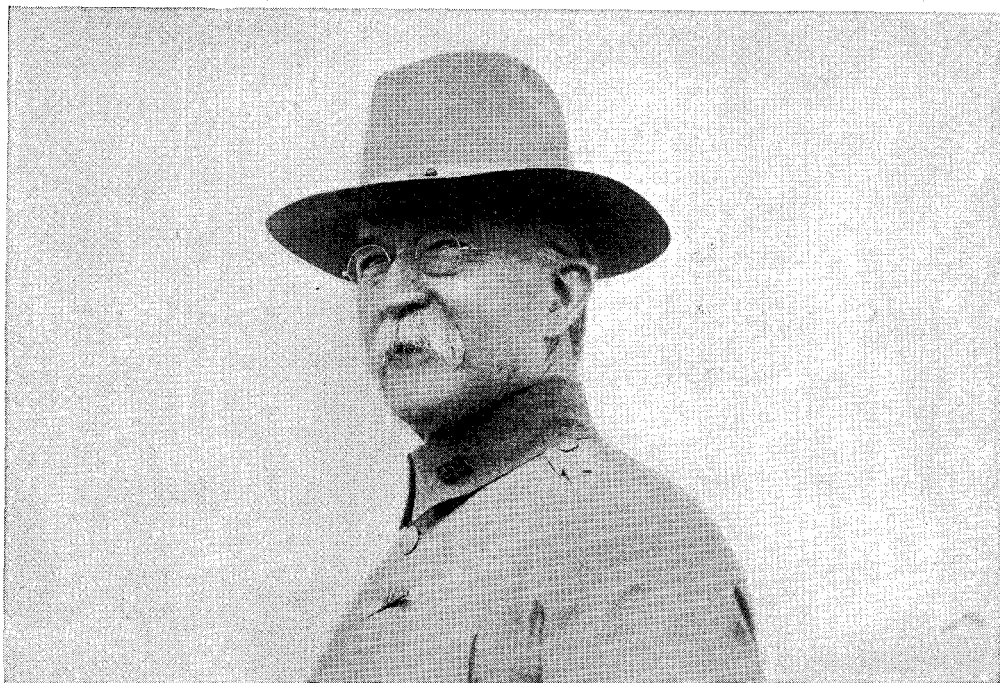
Sharpshooters of General Villa's army firing at Federal troops before the capture of the city



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JOHN LIND

Personal representative in Mexico of President Wilson ; former Governor of Minnesota. This photograph was taken in the United States Legation at Mexico City

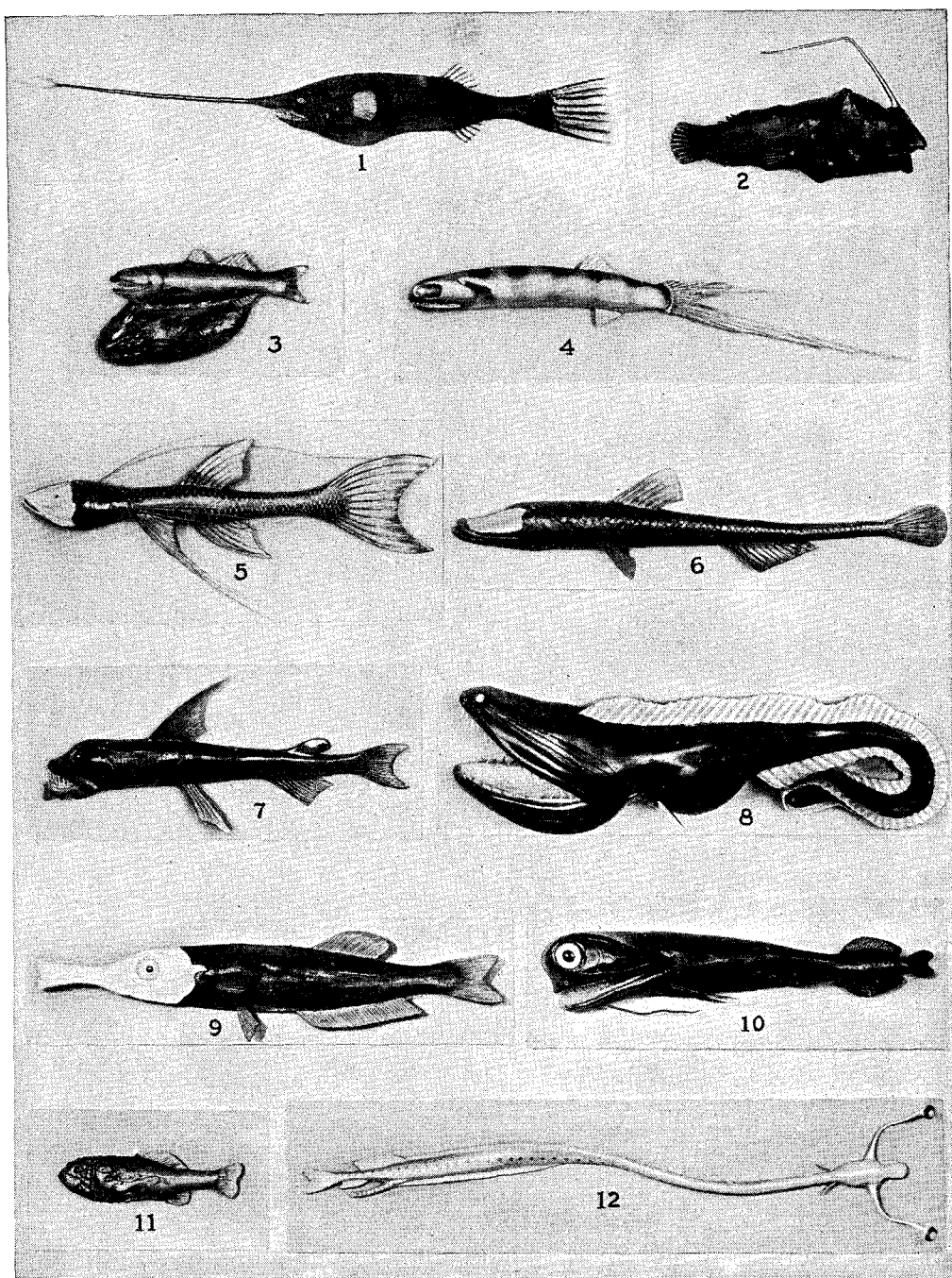


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MAJOR-GENERAL WILLIAM H. CARTER

In command of United States regular troops on the Mexican border

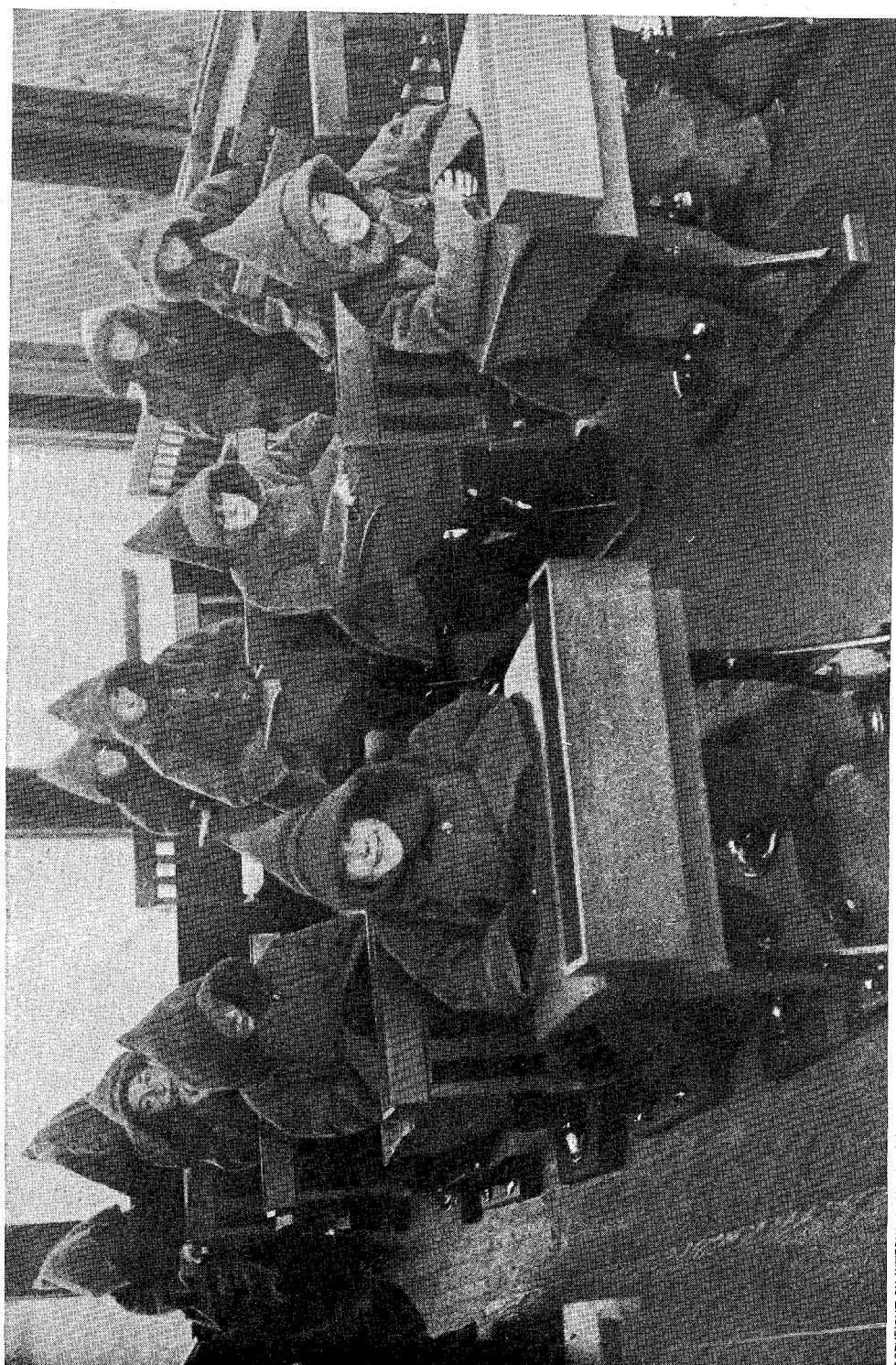
A considerable body of troops, consisting of the Fourth, Fifth, and Sixth Brigades, are now mobilized at Galveston and Texas City



FROM THE AMERICAN MUSEUM OF NATURAL HISTORY

MARVELS OF THE OCEAN'S DEPTHS

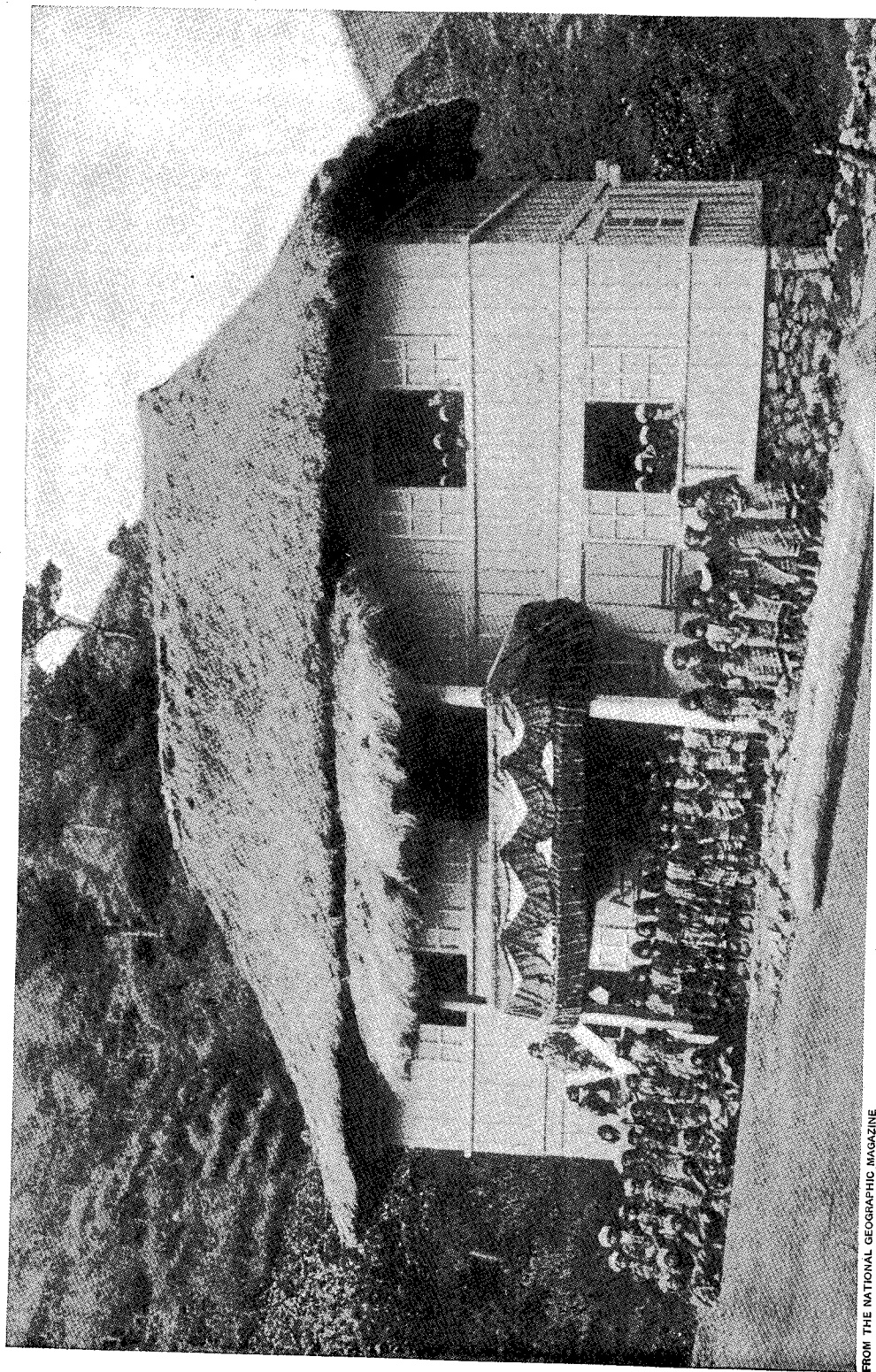
These remarkable fish, described in a lecture before the American Museum of Natural History by the Prince of Monaco, during his recent visit to America (see The Outlook of October 4), are so rare that they have as yet no common names. Their scientific names are derived from the Latin and Greek, and are as follows: **1.** *Gigantactis vanhoffeni*. **2.** *Dolopichthys alleictor*. **3.** *Chiasmodon niger*. **4.** *Gigantura chuni*. **5.** *Bathypterois longicauda*. **6.** *Ipnapops murrayi*. **7.** *Chauliodus sloanei*. **8.** *Gastrostomus bairdi*. **9.** *Aulostomatomorpha phosphorops*. **10.** *Malacosteus indicus*. **11.** *Macramphes nigrofulvus*. **12.** *Stylophthalmus paradoxus*. While these fish habitually live at depths of two or three miles below the surface of the sea, in absolute darkness, many of them have well-developed eyes, which are supposed to be used in their frequent journeys to the surface, which, however, are made only at night.



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A NEW IDEA IN EDUCATION IN AMERICA

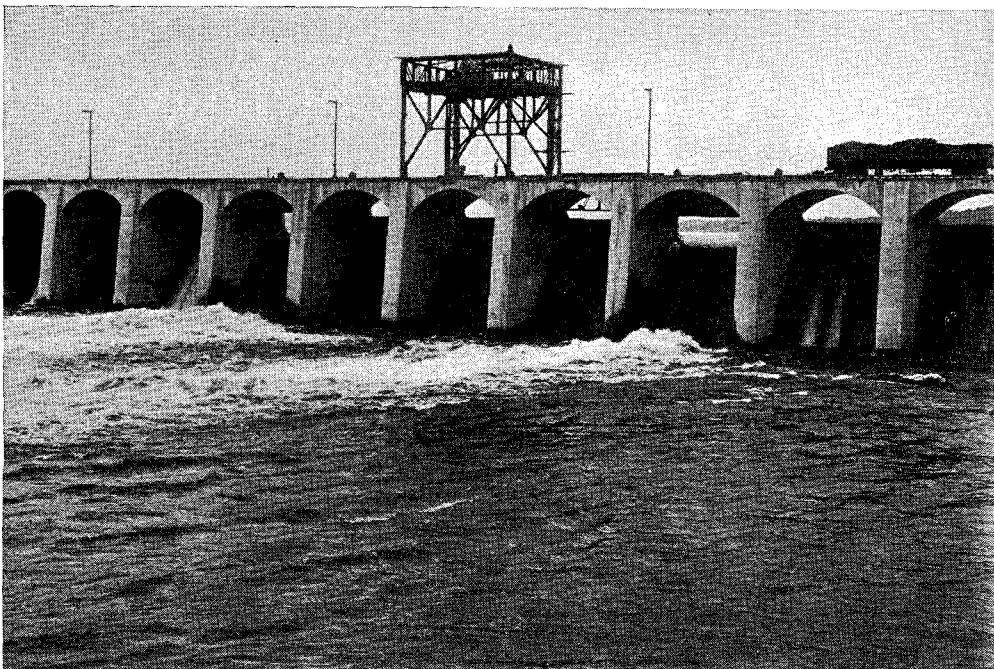
An open-air school of the Bryn Mawr College for Girls in Bryn Mawr, Pennsylvania. Fresh cold air brings health to children's bodies and alertness to their minds, and warm clothing like that here shown keeps them comfortable and happy while getting their lessons. These pupils are to have seven years' schooling in the open air



FROM THE NATIONAL GEOGRAPHIC MAGAZINE

A NEW IDEA IN EDUCATION IN THE PHILIPPINES

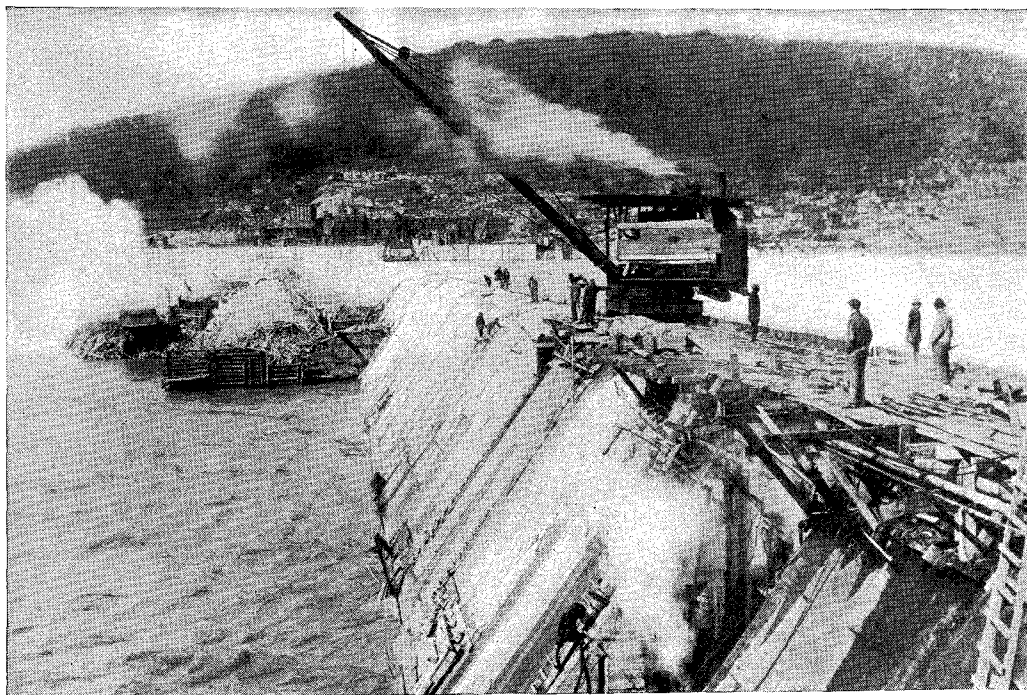
This attractive school-house for industrial training was built by the Benguet Igorots for their children, under the instruction of American teachers. Many an American community might be proud of possessing such a building for training its boys and girls



PHOTOGRAPH BY BROWN BROTHERS

THE GIGANTIC DAM AT KEOKUK, IOWA

This huge barrier across the Mississippi River is nearly a mile long ; it consists of 119 concrete spans, and the viaduct on top of the structure is 29 feet wide. The power developed here will be sent as far as St. Louis, 144 miles away. This is one of the greatest enterprises of the kind ever undertaken



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THE LARGEST HYDRO-ELECTRIC POWER ENTERPRISE IN THE SOUTH

This dam on the Tennessee River near Chattanooga will develop 60,000 horse-power and greatly aid the important manufacturing interests that center in the locality. The dam is 1,200 feet in length and 52 feet high ; it has made a lake 30 miles long out of the Tennessee River at this point. See editorial pages for further comment

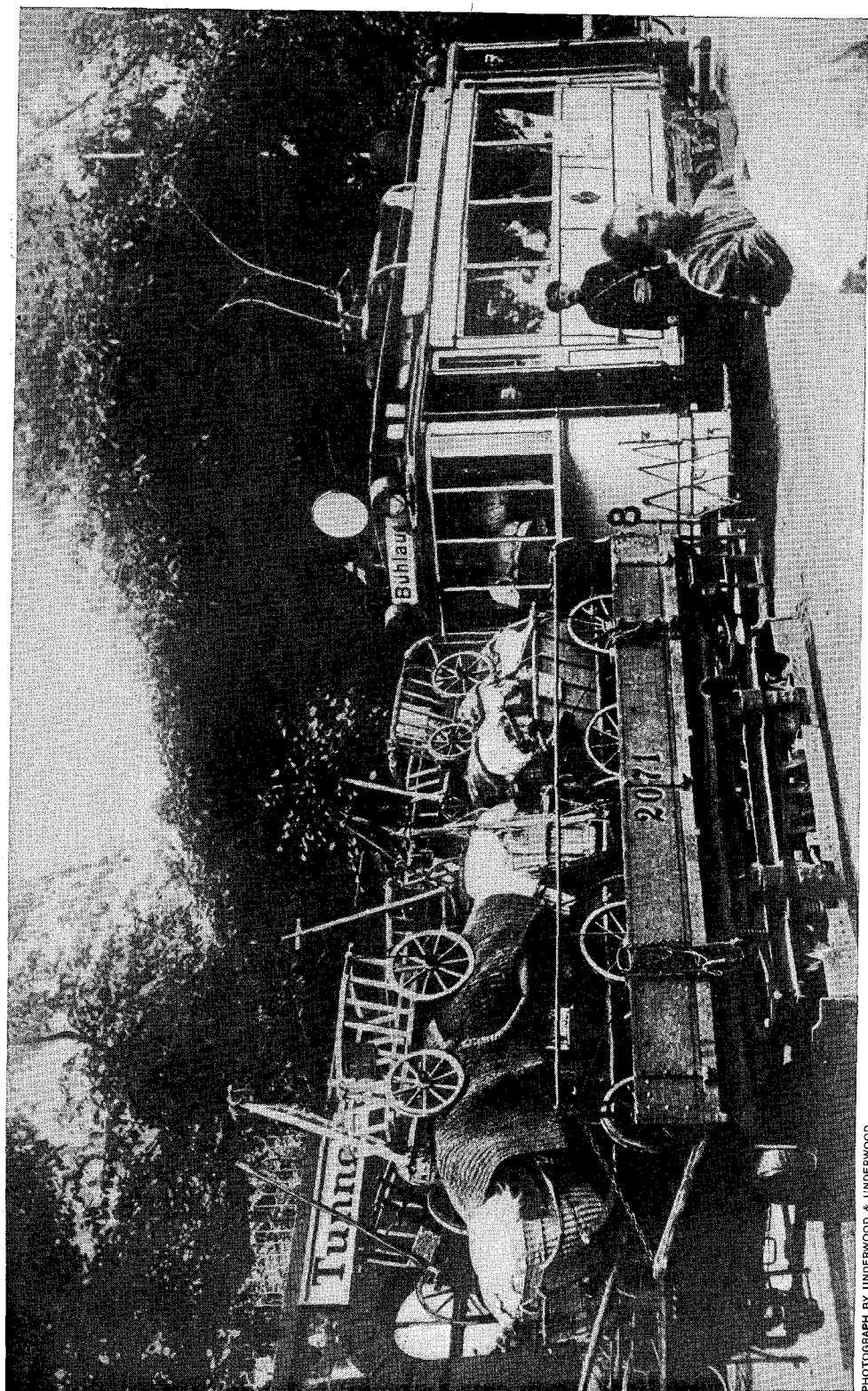
TWO IMPORTANT ENGINEERING PROJECTS ON OUR GREAT RIVERS



FROM A PAINTING BY WILLIAM SHERMAN POTTS

EDWIN ARLINGTON ROBINSON

An American poet whose work is attracting increasing attention. An editorial appreciation of Mr. Robinson's poetry, and a poem by him, will be found elsewhere in this issue



PHOTOGRAPH BY UNDERWOOD & UNDERWOOD

MOVING DAY IN GERMANY

In Dresden, Germany, moving vans have been successfully introduced as a part of the traction system. The freight cars are attached to the regular passenger cars, as shown in the picture, and have proved a decided convenience to the householder who must seek a new home.

THE MONROE DOCTRINE AND THE PANAMA CANAL

THE ELEVENTH INSTALLMENT OF
"CHAPTERS OF A POSSIBLE AUTOBIOGRAPHY"

BY THEODORE ROOSEVELT

In The Outlook of November 22 we published the first of the autobiographical chapters which Mr. Roosevelt devotes to the Presidency. We here print another, containing his interpretation of the Monroe Doctrine and his story of the Panama Canal, and in the issue of The Outlook for December 27 we shall print the final chapter, entitled "The Peace of Righteousness," which discusses the Russo-Japanese Treaty, the tour of the American naval fleet around the world, and his philosophy of war and peace. In other chapters of the Autobiography, which will be found in the volume just published by the Macmillan Company, Mr. Roosevelt describes his relation to the development of the Conservation movement, the regulation of the trusts, the great coal strike, and his policies and beliefs regarding controversies between labor and capital. The volume also contains appendices and documents which have not appeared in the serial publication in the pages of The Outlook. For these details we refer our readers to the book itself, which is valuable both as a personal narrative and as a documentary interpretation of the development of American political and social life since the Civil War. In this latter respect it deserves to be compared with Mr. Bryce's "The American Commonwealth."—THE EDITORS.

AS a legacy of the Spanish War we were left with peculiar relations to the Philippines, Cuba, and Porto Rico, and with an immensely added interest in Central America and the Caribbean Sea. As regards the Philippines my belief was that we should train them for self-government as rapidly as possible, and then leave them free to decide their own fate. I did not believe in setting the time limit within which we would give them independence, because I did not believe it wise to try to forecast how soon they would be fit for self-government; and once having made the promise I would have felt that it was imperative to keep it. Within a few months of my assuming office we had stamped out the last armed resistance in the Philippines that was not of merely sporadic character; and as soon as peace was secured we turned our energies to developing the islands in the interests of the natives. We established schools everywhere; we built roads; we administered an even-handed justice; we did everything possible to encourage agriculture and industry; and in constantly increasing measure we employed natives to do their own governing, and finally provided a legislative chamber. No higher grade of public officials ever handled the affairs of any colony than the public officials who in succession governed the Philippines.

With the possible exception of the Sudan, and not even excepting Algiers, I know of no country ruled and administered by men of the white race where that rule and that administration have been exercised so emphatically with an eye single to the welfare of the natives themselves. The English and Dutch administrators of Malaysia have done admirable work; but the profit to the Europeans in those states has always been one of the chief elements considered; whereas in the Philippines our whole attention was concentrated upon the welfare of the Filipinos themselves, if anything to the neglect of our own interests.

In Cuba, as in the Philippines and as in Porto Rico, Santo Domingo, and later in Panama, no small part of our success was due to the fact that we put in the highest grade of men as public officials. This practice was inaugurated under President McKinley. I found admirable men in office, and I continued them and appointed men like them as their successors. The way that the custom-houses in Santo Domingo were administered by Colton definitely established the success of our experiment in securing peace for that island republic; and in Porto Rico, under the administration of affairs under such officials as Hunt, Winthrop, Post, Ward, and Grahame, more substantial prog-

ress was achieved in a decade than in any previous century.

The Philippines, Cuba, and Porto Rico came within our own sphere of governmental action. In addition to this we asserted certain rights in the Western Hemisphere under the Monroe Doctrine. My endeavor was not only to assert these rights, but frankly and fully to acknowledge the duties that went with the rights.

The Monroe Doctrine lays down the rule that the Western Hemisphere is not hereafter to be treated as subject to settlement and occupation by Old World powers. It is not international law; but it is a cardinal principle of our foreign policy. There is no difficulty at the present day in maintaining this doctrine, save where the American power whose interest is threatened has shown itself in international matters both weak and delinquent. The great and prosperous civilized commonwealths, such as the Argentine, Brazil, and Chile, in the southern half of South America, have advanced so far that they no longer stand in any position of tutelage toward the United States. They occupy toward us precisely the position that Canada occupies. Their friendship is the friendship of equals for equals. My view was that as regards these nations there was no more necessity for asserting the Monroe Doctrine than there was to assert it in regard to Canada. They were competent to assert it for themselves. Of course if one of these nations, or if Canada, should be overcome by some Old World power, which then proceeded to occupy its territory, we would undoubtedly, if the American nation needed our help, give it in order to prevent such occupation from taking place. But the initiative would come from the nation itself, and the United States would merely act as a friend whose help was invoked.

The case was (and is) widely different as regards certain—not all—of the tropical states in the neighborhood of the Caribbean Sea. Where these states are stable and prosperous, they stand on a footing of absolute equality with all other communities. But some of them have been a prey to such continuous revolutionary misrule as to have grown impotent either to do their duties to outsiders or to enforce their rights against outsiders. The United States has not the slightest desire to make aggressions on any one of these states. On the contrary, it will submit to much from them without showing

resentment. If any great civilized power, Russia or Germany, for instance, had behaved toward us as Venezuela under Castro behaved, this country would have gone to war at once. We did not go to war with Venezuela merely because our people declined to be irritated by the actions of a weak opponent, and showed a forbearance which probably went beyond the limits of wisdom in refusing to take umbrage at what was done by the weak; although we would certainly have resented it had it been done by the strong. In the case of two states, however, affairs reached such a crisis that we had to act. These two states were Santo Domingo and the then owner of the Isthmus of Panama, Colombia.

The Santo Domingan case was the less important; and yet it possessed a real importance, and, moreover, is instructive because the action there taken should serve as a precedent for American action in all similar cases. During the early years of my Administration Santo Domingo was in its usual condition of chronic revolution. There was always fighting, always plundering; and the successful graspers for governmental power were always pawning ports and custom-houses, or trying to put them up as guarantees for loans. Of course the foreigners who made loans under such conditions demanded exorbitant interest, and if they were Europeans expected their Governments to stand by them. So utter was the disorder that on one occasion when Admiral Dewey landed to pay a call of ceremony on the President, he and his party were shot at by revolutionists in crossing the square, and had to return to the ships, leaving the call unpaid. There was default on the interest due to the creditors; and finally the latter insisted upon their governments intervening. Two or three of the European powers were endeavoring to arrange for concerted action, and I was finally notified that these powers intended to take and hold several of the seaports which held custom-houses.

This meant that unless I acted at once I would find foreign powers in partial possession of Santo Domingo, in which event the very individuals who in the actual event deprecated the precaution taken to prevent such action would have advocated extreme and violent measures to undo the effect of their own supineness. Nine-tenths of wisdom is to be wise in time, and at the right time; and my whole foreign policy was based on the exer-

cise of intelligent forethought and of decisive action sufficiently far in advance of any likely crisis to make it improbable that we would run into serious trouble.

Santo Domingo had fallen into such chaos that once for some weeks there were two rival governments in it, and a revolution was being carried on against each. At one period one government was at sea in a small gunboat, but still stoutly maintained that it was in possession of the island and entitled to make loans and declare peace or war. The situation had become intolerable by the time that I interfered. There was a naval commander in the waters whom I directed to prevent any fighting which might menace the custom-houses. He carried out his orders, both to his and my satisfaction, in thoroughgoing fashion. On one occasion, when an insurgent force threatened to attack a town in which Americans had interests, he notified the commanders on both sides that he would not permit any fighting in the town, but that he would appoint a certain place where they could meet and fight it out, and that the victors should have the town. They agreed to meet his wishes, the fight came off at the appointed place, and the victors, who, if I remember rightly, were the insurgents, were given the town.

It was the custom-houses that caused the trouble, for they offered the only means of raising money, and the revolutions were carried on to get possession of them. Accordingly I secured an agreement with the governmental authorities who for the moment seemed best able to speak for the country, by which these custom-houses were placed under American control. The arrangement was that we should keep order and prevent any interference with the custom-houses or the places where they stood, and should collect the revenues. Forty-five per cent of the revenue was then turned over to the Santo Domingan Government, and fifty-five per cent put in a sinking fund in New York for the benefit of the creditors. The arrangement worked in capital style. On the forty-five per cent basis the Santo Domingan Government received from us a larger sum than it had ever received before when nominally all the revenue went to it. The creditors were entirely satisfied with the arrangement, and no excuse for interference by European powers remained. Occasional disturbances occurred in the island, of course, but on the whole there ensued a degree of

peace and prosperity which the island had not known before for at least a century.

All this was done without the loss of a life, with the assent of all the parties in interest, and without subjecting the United States to any charge, while practically all of the interference, after the naval commander whom I have mentioned had taken the initial steps in preserving order, consisted in putting a first-class man trained in our insular service at the head of the Santo Domingan customs service. We secured peace, we protected the people of the islands against foreign foes, and we minimized the chance of domestic trouble. We satisfied the creditors and the foreign nations to which the creditors belonged; and our own part of the work was done with the utmost efficiency and with rigid honesty, so that not a particle of scandal was ever so much as hinted at.

The Constitution did not explicitly give me power to bring about the necessary agreement with Santo Domingo. But the Constitution did not forbid my doing what I did. I put the agreement into effect, and I continued its execution for two years before the Senate acted; and I would have continued it until the end of my term, if necessary, without any action by Congress. But it was far preferable that there should be action by Congress, so that we might be proceeding under a treaty which was the law of the land and not merely by a direction of the Chief Executive which would lapse when that particular executive left office. I therefore did my best to get the Senate to ratify what I had done. There was a good deal of difficulty about it. And the Senate adjourned without any action at all, and with a feeling of entire self-satisfaction at having left the country in the position of assuming a responsibility and then failing to fulfill it. Apparently the Senators in question felt that in some way they had upheld their dignity. All that they had really done was to shirk their duty. Somebody had to do that duty, and accordingly I did it. I went ahead and administered the proposed treaty anyhow, considering it a simple agreement on the part of the Executive which would be converted into a treaty whenever the Senate acted. After a couple of years the Senate did act, having previously made some utterly unimportant changes which I ratified and persuaded Santo Domingo to ratify. In all its history Santo Domingo has had nothing happen to it as fortunate as this treaty, and

the passing of it saved the United States from having to face serious difficulties with one or more foreign powers.

By far the most important action I took in foreign affairs during the time I was President related to the Panama Canal. Here again there was much accusation about my having acted in an "unconstitutional" manner—a position which can be upheld only if Jefferson's action in acquiring Louisiana be also treated as unconstitutional; and at different stages of the affair believers in a do-nothing policy denounced me as having "usurped authority"—which meant, that when nobody else could or would exercise efficient authority, I exercised it.

During the nearly four hundred years that had elapsed since Balboa crossed the Isthmus, there had been a good deal of talk about building an Isthmus canal, and there had been various discussions of the subject and negotiations about it in Washington for the previous half-century. So far it had all resulted merely in conversation; and the time had come when unless somebody was prepared to act with decision we would have to resign ourselves to at least half a century of further conversation. Under the Hay-Pauncefote Treaty, signed shortly after I became President, and thanks to our negotiations with the French Panama Company, the United States at last acquired a possession, so far as Europe was concerned, which warranted her in immediately undertaking the task. It remained to decide where the Canal should be, whether along the line already pioneered by the French Company in Panama, or in Nicaragua. Panama belonged to the Republic of Colombia. Nicaragua bid eagerly for the privilege of having the United States build the Canal through her territory. As long as it was doubtful which route we would decide upon, Colombia extended every promise of friendly co-operation: at the Pan-American Congress in Mexico her delegate joined in the unanimous vote which requested the United States forthwith to build the Canal; and at her eager request we negotiated the Hay-Herran Treaty with her, which gave us the right to build the Canal across Panama. A board of experts sent to the Isthmus had reported that this route was better than the Nicaragua route, and that it would be well to build the Canal over it provided we could purchase the rights of the French Company for forty million dollars; but that otherwise they would advise

taking the Nicaragua route. Ever since 1846 we had had a treaty with the power then in control of the Isthmus, the Republic of New Granada, the predecessor of the Republic of Colombia and of the present Republic of Panama, by which treaty the United States was guaranteed free and open right of way across the Isthmus of Panama by any mode of communication that might be constructed, while in return our Government guaranteed the perfect neutrality of the Isthmus with a view to the preservation of free transit.

For nearly fifty years we had asserted the right to prevent the closing of this highway of commerce. Secretary of State Cass in 1858 officially stated the American position as follows:

"Sovereignty has its duties as well as its rights, and none of these local governments, even if administered with more regard to the just demands of other nations than they have been, would be permitted, in a spirit of Eastern isolation, to close the gates of intercourse of the great highways of the world, and justify the act by the pretension that these avenues of trade and travel belong to them and that they choose to shut them, or, what is almost equivalent, to encumber them with such unjust relations as would prevent their general use."

We had again and again been forced to intervene to protect the transit across the Isthmus, and the intervention was frequently at the request of Colombia herself. The effort to build a canal by private capital had been made under de Lesseps and had resulted in lamentable failure. Every serious proposal to build the canal in such manner had been abandoned. The United States had repeatedly announced that we would not permit it to be built or controlled by any Old World government. Colombia was utterly impotent to build it herself. Under these circumstances it had become a matter of imperative obligation that we should build it ourselves without further delay.

I took final action in 1903. During the preceding fifty-three years the Governments of New Granada and of its successor, Colombia, had been in a constant state of flux; and the State of Panama had sometimes been treated as almost independent, in a loose federal league, and sometimes as the mere property of the Government at Bogota; and there had been innumerable appeals to arms, sometimes for adequate, sometimes for inad-

equate, reasons. The following is a partial list of the disturbances on the Isthmus of Panama during the period in question, as reported to us by our consuls. It is not possible to give a complete list, and some of the reports that speak of "revolutions" must mean unsuccessful revolutions:

May 22, 1850. Outbreak; two Americans killed. War-vessel demanded to quell outbreak.

October, 1850. Revolutionary plot to bring about independence of the Isthmus.

July 22, 1851. Revolution in four southern provinces.

November 14, 1851. Outbreak at Chagres. Man-of-war requested for Chagres.

June 27, 1853. Insurrection at Bogota, and consequent disturbance on Isthmus. War-vessel demanded.

May 23, 1854. Political disturbances. War-vessel requested.

June 28, 1854. Attempted revolution.

October 24, 1854. Independence of Isthmus demanded by provincial legislature.

April, 1856. Riot, and massacre of Americans.

May 4, 1856. Riot.

May 18, 1856. Riot.

June 3, 1856. Riot.

October 2, 1856. Conflict between two native parties. United States force landed.

December 18, 1858. Attempted secession of Panama.

April, 1859. Riots.

September, 1860. Outbreak.

October 4, 1860. Landing of United States forces in consequence.

May 23, 1861. Intervention of the United States forces required by intendente.

October 2, 1861. Insurrection and civil war.

April 4, 1862. Measures to prevent rebels crossing Isthmus.

June 13, 1862. Mosquera's troops refused admittance to Panama.

March, 1865. Revolution, and United States troops landed.

August, 1865. Riots; unsuccessful attempt to invade Panama.

March, 1866. Unsuccessful revolution.

April, 1867. Attempt to overthrow Government.

August, 1867. Attempt at revolution.

July 5, 1868. Revolution; provisional government inaugurated.

August 29, 1868. Revolution; provisional government overthrown.

April, 1871. Revolution; followed apparently by counter-revolution.

April, 1873. Revolution and civil war which lasted to October, 1875.

August, 1876. Civil war which lasted until April, 1877.

July, 1878. Rebellion.

December, 1878. Revolt.

April, 1879. Revolution.

June, 1879. Revolution.

March, 1883. Riot.

May, 1883. Riot.

June, 1884. Revolutionary attempt.

December, 1884. Revolutionary attempt.

January, 1885. Revolutionary disturbances.

March, 1885. Revolution.

April, 1887. Disturbance on Panama Railroad.

November, 1887. Disturbance on line of Canal.

January, 1889. Riot.

January, 1895. Revolution which lasted until April.

March, 1895. Incendiary attempt.

October, 1899. Revolution.

February, 1900, to July, 1900. Revolution.

January, 1901. Revolution.

July, 1901. Revolutionary disturbances.

September, 1901. City of Colon taken by rebels.

March, 1902. Revolutionary disturbances.

July, 1902. Revolution.

The above is only a partial list of the revolutions, rebellions, insurrections, riots, and other outbreaks that occurred during the period in question; yet they number fifty-three for the fifty-three years, and they showed a tendency to increase, rather than decrease, in numbers and intensity. One of them lasted for nearly three years before it was quelled; another for nearly a year. In short, the experience of over half a century had shown Colombia to be utterly incapable of keeping order on the Isthmus. Only the active interference of the United States had enabled her to preserve so much as a semblance of sovereignty. Had it not been for the exercise by the United States of the police power in her interest, her connection with the Isthmus would have been sundered long before it was. In 1856, in 1860, in 1873, in 1885, in 1901, and again in 1902, sailors and marines from United States war-ships were obliged to land in order to patrol the Isthmus, to pro-

fect life and property, and to see that the transit across the Isthmus was kept open. In 1861, in 1862, in 1885, and in 1900, the Colombian Government asked that the United States Government would land troops to protect Colombian interests and maintain order on the Isthmus. The people of Panama during the preceding twenty years had three times sought to establish their independence by revolution or secession—in 1885, in 1895, and in 1899.

The peculiar relations of the United States toward the Isthmus, and the acquiescence by Colombia in acts which were quite incompatible with the theory of her having an absolute and unconditioned sovereignty on the Isthmus, are illustrated by the following three telegrams between two of our naval officers whose ships were at the Isthmus, and the Secretary of the Navy, on the occasion of the first outbreak that occurred on the Isthmus after I became President (a year before Panama became independent):

"September 12, 1902.

"*Ranger, Panama:*

"United States guarantees perfect neutrality of Isthmus and that a free transit from sea to sea be not interrupted or embarrassed. . . . Any transportation of troops which might contravene these provisions of treaty should not be sanctioned by you, nor should use of road be permitted which might convert the line of transit into theater of hostility.

"MOODY."

"Colon, September 20, 1902.

"*Secretary Navy, Washington:*

"Everything is conceded. The United States guards and guarantees traffic and the line of transit. To-day I permitted the exchange of Colombian troops from Panama to Colon, about 1,000 men each way, the troops without arms in trains guarded by American naval force in the same manner as other passengers; arms and ammunition in separate train, guarded also by naval force in the same manner as other freight.

"MCLEAN."

"Panama, October 3, 1902.

"*Secretary Navy, Washington, D. C.:*

"Have sent this communication to the American Consul at Panama:

"'Inform Governor, while trains running under United States protection, I must decline transportation any combatants, ammunition, arms, which might cause interruption to traffic or convert line of transit into theater hostilities.'

CASEY."

When the Government in nominal control of the Isthmus continually besought American interference to protect the "rights" it could not itself protect, and permitted our Government to transport Colombian troops unarmed, under protection of our own armed men, while the Colombian arms and ammunition came in a separate train, it is obvious that the Colombian "sovereignty" was of such a character as to warrant our insisting that, inasmuch as it existed only because of our protection, there should be in requital a sense of the obligations that the acceptance of this protection implied.

Meanwhile Colombia was under a dictatorship. In 1898 M. A. Sanclemente was elected President, and J. M. Maroquin Vice-President, of the Republic of Colombia. On July 31, 1900, the Vice-President, Maroquin, executed a *coup d'état* by seizing the person of the President, Sanclemente, and imprisoning him at a place a few miles out of Bogota. Maroquin thereupon declared himself possessed of the executive power because of "the absence of the President"—a delightful touch of unconscious humor. He then issued a decree that public order was disturbed, and, upon that ground, assumed to himself legislative power under another provision of the constitution; that is, having himself disturbed the public order, he alleged the disturbance as a justification for seizing absolute power. Thenceforth Maroquin, without the aid of any legislative body, ruled as a dictator, combining the supreme executive, legislative, civil, and military authorities, in the so-called Republic of Colombia. The "absence" of Sanclemente from the capital became permanent by his death in prison in the year 1902. When the people of Panama declared their independence in November, 1903, no Congress had sat in Colombia since the year 1890, except the special Congress called by Maroquin to reject the Canal treaty, and which did reject it by a unanimous vote, and adjourned without legislating on any other subject. The Constitution of 1886 had taken away from Panama the power of self-government and vested it in Colombia. The *coup d'état* of Maroquin took away from Colombia herself the power of government and vested it in an irresponsible dictator.

Consideration of the above facts ought to be enough to show any human being that we were not dealing with normal conditions on the Isthmus and in Colombia. We were dealing with the government of an irrespon-

sible alien dictator, and with a condition of affairs on the Isthmus itself which was marked by one uninterrupted series of outbreaks and revolutions. As for the "consent of the governed" theory, that absolutely justified our action; the people on the Isthmus were the "governed;" they were governed by Colombia, without their consent, and they unanimously repudiated the Colombian government, and demanded that the United States build the Canal.

I had done everything possible, personally and through Secretary Hay, to persuade the Colombian Government to keep faith. Under the Hay-Pauncefote Treaty it was explicitly provided that the United States should build the Canal, should control, police, and protect it, and keep it open to the vessels of all nations on equal terms. We had assumed the position of guarantor of the Canal, including, of course, the building of the Canal, and of its peaceful use by all the world. The enterprise was recognized everywhere as responding to an international need. It was a mere travesty on justice to treat the government in possession of the Isthmus as having the right—which Secretary Cass forty-five years before had so emphatically repudiated—to close the gates of intercourse on one of the great highways of the world. When we submitted to Colombia the Hay-Herran Treaty, it had been settled that the time for delay, the time for permitting any government of anti-social character, or of imperfect development, to bar the work, had passed. The United States had assumed in connection with the Canal certain responsibilities not only to its own people, but to the civilized world, which imperatively demanded that there should be no further delay in beginning the work. The Hay-Herran Treaty, if it erred at all, erred in being overgenerous toward Colombia. The people of Panama were delighted with the treaty, and the President of Colombia, who embodied in his own person the entire government of Colombia, had authorized the treaty to be made. But after the treaty had been made the Colombia Government thought it had the matter in its own hands, and the further thought, equally wicked and foolish, came into the heads of the people in control at Bogota that they would seize the French Company at the end of another year and take for themselves the forty million dollars which the United States had agreed to pay the Panama Canal Company.

President Maroquin, through his Minister, had agreed to the Hay-Herran Treaty in January, 1903. He had the absolute power of an unconstitutional dictator to keep his promise or break it. He determined to break it. To furnish himself an excuse for breaking it he devised the plan of summoning a Congress especially called to reject the Canal treaty. This the Congress—a Congress of mere puppets—did, without a dissenting vote, and the puppets adjourned forthwith without legislating on any other subject. The fact that this was a mere sham, and that the President had entire power to confirm his own treaty and act on it if he desired, was shown as soon as the revolution took place, for on November 6 General Reyes, of Colombia, addressed the American Minister at Bogota on behalf of President Maroquin, saying that "if the Government of the United States would land troops and restore the Colombian sovereignty" the Colombian President would "declare martial law, and, by virtue of vested constitutional authority, when public order is disturbed, would approve by decree the ratification of the Canal treaty as signed; or, if the Government of the United States prefers, would call an extra session of the Congress—with new and friendly members—next May to approve the treaty." This, of course, is proof positive that the Colombian dictator had used his Congress as a mere shield, and a sham shield at that, and it shows how utterly useless it would have been further to trust his good faith in the matter.

When, in August, 1903, I became convinced that Colombia intended to repudiate the treaty made the preceding January, under cover of securing its rejection by the Colombian Legislature, I began carefully to consider what should be done. By my direction Secretary Hay, personally and through the Minister at Bogota, repeatedly warned Colombia that grave consequences might follow her rejection of the treaty. The possibility of ratification did not wholly pass away until the close of the session of the Colombian Congress on the last day of October. There would then be two possibilities. One was that Panama would remain quiet. In that case I was prepared to recommend to Congress that we should at once occupy the Isthmus anyhow, and proceed to dig the Canal; and I had drawn out a draft of my message to this effect. But from the information I

received, I deemed it likely that there would be a revolution in Panama as soon as the Colombian Congress adjourned without ratifying the treaty, for the entire population of Panama felt that the immediate building of the Canal was of vital concern to their well-being. Correspondents of the different newspapers on the Isthmus had sent to their respective papers widely published forecasts indicating that there would be a revolution in such event.

Moreover, on October 16, at the request of Lieutenant-General Young, Captain Humphrey and Lieutenant Murphy, two army officers who had returned from the Isthmus, saw me and told me that there would unquestionably be a revolution on the Isthmus, that the people were unanimous in their criticism of the Bogota Government and their disgust over the failure of that Government to ratify the treaty, and that the revolution would probably take place immediately after the adjournment of the Colombian Congress. They did not believe that it would be before October 20, but they were confident that it would certainly come at the end of October or immediately afterwards, when the Colombian Congress had adjourned. Accordingly I directed the Navy Department to station various ships within easy reach of the Isthmus, to be ready to act in the event of need arising.

These ships were barely in time. On November 3 the revolution occurred. Practically everybody on the Isthmus, including all the Colombian troops that were already stationed there, joined in the revolution, and there was no bloodshed. But on that same day four hundred new Colombian troops were landed at Colon. Fortunately, the gunboat Nashville, under Commander Hubbard, reached Colon almost immediately afterwards, and when the commander of the Colombian forces threatened the lives and property of the American citizens, including women and children, in Colon, Commander Hubbard landed a few score sailors and marines to protect them. By a mixture of firmness and tact he not only prevented any assault on our citizens, but persuaded the Colombian commander to re-embark his troops for Cartagena. On the Pacific side a Colombian gunboat shelled the city of Panama, with the result of killing one Chinaman—the only life lost in the whole affair.

No one connected with the American Government had any part in preparing, inciting, or encouraging the revolution, and

except for the reports of our military and naval officers, which I forwarded to Congress, no one connected with the Government had any previous knowledge concerning the proposed revolution, except such as was accessible to any person who read the newspapers and kept abreast of current questions and current affairs. By the unanimous action of its people, and without the firing of a shot, the State of Panama declared themselves an independent republic. The time for hesitation on our part had passed.

My belief then was, and the events that have occurred since have more than justified it, that from the standpoint of the United States it was imperative, not only for civil but for military reasons, that there should be the immediate establishment of easy and speedy communication by sea between the Atlantic and the Pacific. These reasons were not of convenience only, but of vital necessity, and did not admit of indefinite delay. The action of Colombia had shown, not only that the delay would be indefinite, but that she intended to confiscate the property and rights of the French Panama Canal Company. The report of the Panama Canal Committee of the Colombian Senate on October 14, 1903, on the proposed treaty with the United States, proposed that all consideration of the matter should be postponed until October 31, 1904, when the next Colombian Congress would have convened, because by that time the new Congress would be in condition to determine whether through lapse of time the French company had not forfeited its property and rights. "When that time arrives," the report significantly declared, "the Republic, without any impediment, will be able to contract, and will be in more clear, more definite, and more advantageous possession, both legally and materially." The naked meaning of this was that Colombia proposed to wait a year, and then enforce a forfeiture of the rights and property of the French Panama Company, so as to secure the forty million dollars our Government had authorized as payment to this company. If we had sat supine, this would doubtless have meant that France would have interfered to protect the company, and we should then have had on the Isthmus, not the company, but France; and the gravest international complications might have ensued. Every consideration of international morality and expediency, of duty to the Panama people, and of satisfaction of our

own National interests and honor, bade us take immediate action. I recognized Panama forthwith on behalf of the United States, and practically all the countries of the world immediately followed suit. The State Department immediately negotiated a Canal treaty with the new Republic. One of the foremost men in securing the independence of Panama, and the treaty which authorized the United States forthwith to build the Canal, was M. Philippe Bunau-Varilla, an eminent French engineer formerly associated with De Lesseps and then living on the Isthmus; his services to civilization were notable, and deserve the fullest recognition.

From the beginning to the end our course was straightforward and in absolute accord with the highest standards of international morality. Criticism of it can come only from misinformation, or else from a sentimentality which represents both mental weakness and a moral twist. To have acted otherwise than I did would have been on my part betrayal of the interests of the United States, indifference to the interests of Panama, and recreancy to the interests of the world at large. Colombia had forfeited every claim to consideration; indeed, this is not stating the case strongly enough; she had so acted that yielding to her would have meant on our part that culpable form of weakness which stands on a level with wickedness. As for me personally, if I had hesitated to act, and had not in advance discounted the clamor of those Americans who have made a fetish of disloyalty to their country, I should have esteemed myself as deserving a place in Dante's inferno beside the faint-hearted cleric who was guilty of "*il gran rifiuto*." The facts I have given above are mere bald statements from the record. They show that from the beginning there had been acceptance of our right to insist on free transit, in whatever form was best, across the Isthmus; and that towards the end there had been a no less universal feeling that it was our duty to the world to provide this transit in the shape of a canal—the resolution of the Pan-American Congress was practically a mandate to this effect.

We gave to the people of Panama self-government, and freed them from subjection to alien oppressors. We did our best to get Colombia to let us treat her with a more than generous justice; we exercised patience to beyond the verge of proper forbearance. When we did act and recognize Panama,

Colombia at once acknowledged her own guilt by promptly offering to do what we had demanded, and what she had protested it was not in her power to do. But the offer came too late. What we would gladly have done before, it had by that time become impossible for us honorably to do; for it would have necessitated our abandoning the people of Panama, our friends, and turning them over to their and our foes, who would have wreaked vengeance on them precisely because they had shown friendship to us. Colombia was solely responsible for her own humiliation; and she had not then, and has not now, one shadow of claim upon us, moral or legal; all the wrong that was done was done by her. If, as representing the American people, I had not acted precisely as I did, I would have been an unfaithful or incompetent representative; and inaction at that crisis would have meant not only indefinite delay in building the Canal, but also practical admission on our part that we were not fit to play the part on the Isthmus which we had arrogated to ourselves. I acted on my own responsibility in the Panama matter. John Hay spoke of this action as follows: "The action of the President in the Panama matter is not only in the strictest accordance with the principles of justice and equity, and in line with all the best precedents of our public policy, but it was the only course he could have taken in compliance with our treaty rights and obligations."

After a sufficient period of wrangling, the Senate ratified the treaty with Panama, and work on the Canal was begun. The first thing that was necessary was to decide the type of canal. I summoned a board of engineering experts, foreign and native. They divided on their report. The majority of the members, including all the foreign members, approved a sea-level canal. The minority, including most of the American members, approved a lock canal. Studying these conclusions, I came to the belief that the minority was right. The two great traffic canals of the world were the Suez and the Soo. The Suez Canal is a sea-level canal, and it was the one best known to European engineers. The Soo Canal, through which an even greater volume of traffic passes every year, is a lock canal, and the American engineers were thoroughly familiar with it; whereas, in my judgment, the European engineers had failed to pay proper heed to

the lessons taught by its operation and management. Moreover, the engineers who were to do the work at Panama all favored a lock canal. I came to the conclusion that a sea-level canal would be slightly less exposed to damage in the event of war; that the running expenses, apart from the heavy cost of interest on the amount necessary to build it, would be less; and that for small ships the time of transit would be less. But I also came to the conclusion that the lock canal at the proposed level would cost only about half as much to build and would be built in half the time, with much less risk; that for large ships the transit would be quicker, and that, taking into account the interest saved, the cost of maintenance would be less. Accordingly I recommended to Congress, on February 19, 1906, that a lock canal should be built, and my recommendation was adopted. Congress insisted upon having it built by a commission of several men. I tried faithfully to get good work out of the commission, and found it quite impossible; for a many-headed commission is an extremely poor executive instrument. At last I put Colonel Goethals in as head of the commission. Then, when Congress still refused to make the commission single-headed, I solved the difficulty by an executive order of January 6, 1908, which practically accomplished the object by enlarging the powers of the chair-

man, making all the other members of the commission dependent upon him, and thereby placing the work under one-man control. Dr. Gorgas had already performed an inestimable service by caring for the sanitary conditions so thoroughly as to make the Isthmus as safe as a health resort. Colonel Goethals proved to be the man of all others to do the job. It would be impossible to overstate what he has done. It is the greatest task of any kind that any man in the world has accomplished during the years that Colonel Goethals has been at work. It is the greatest task of its own kind that has ever been performed in the world at all. Colonel Goethals has succeeded in instilling into the men under him a spirit which elsewhere has been found only in a few victorious armies. It is proper and appropriate that, like the soldiers of such armies, they should receive medals which are allotted each man who has served for a sufficient length of time. A finer body of men has never been gathered by any nation than the men who have done the work of building the Panama Canal; the conditions under which they have lived and have done their work have been better than in any similar work ever undertaken in the tropics; they have all felt an eager pride in their work; and they have made not only America but the whole world their debtors by what they have accomplished.

TO AN OLD LADY

INSCRIPTION IN "A NARROW WAY,"¹ BY MARY FINDLATER

Through this dim, sorry world, where some men hold
We fight with shadows for a cause unknown,
You move serene and confident; as gay
As if Life were a festival: your ease
Deferred, and others' pleasure all your care.

Yet they that know you best call you most dear,
Not for your hundred charms, your mirth, your wit,
But for the hidden strength which these adorn.
Begirt with graces, still through life you go,
Constant, unswerving, Duty at your heart,
And others wonder at your steadfastness—
At that unflinching temper of the soul
That in the hour of darkness has not failed:

For each of all your days, when read aright,
Is like some ancient missal's flaming page
Bordered with garlands, roses, fantasies,
Writ in the midst with precepts of the Law.

¹E. P. Dutton & Co., New York.

WHAT SHALL WE DO FOR GASOLINE?

BY WALDEMAR KAEMPFERT

IF you want to win a snug little prize of \$100,000, you have only to discover a cheap substitute for gasoline. The International Association of Recognized Automobile Clubs—in other words, an organization representing the motor car users of nearly every civilized country—puts up the prize. To be sure, there are “strings” to the offer. The new fuel must be suitable for existing engines; it must be cheaper than gasoline; it must be readily procurable in large quantities; it must be of such a nature that it cannot be “cornered” by trusts. The lucky discoverer of that fuel will also earn a reward of \$10,000 offered by the British Society of Motor Car Manufacturers and Traders. What is more to the point, he will accumulate a princely sum in royalties, compared with which the cash prizes of the two associations will seem to him pitifully small.

Any one who owns an automobile will understand why these two associations and many others are concerned about a substitute for gasoline. The price of cars is going down; but the price of gasoline is going up. Why? Because the supply of the kind of petroleum from which gasoline is obtained is steadily dwindling. In 1914 there will probably be one hundred per cent more automobiles and motor trucks in operation than there were in 1913; but the increase in gasoline production will be less than five per cent. No wonder that automobile associations and manufacturers are worried about the gasoline supply.

A man named Drake sixty-four years ago drilled the first oil well at Titusville, Pennsylvania, to a depth of 400 feet. In a year he pumped up about two thousand barrels of petroleum, and was glad to sell them at a fair profit. In the year 1912 the production of the world amounted to 347,000,000 barrels, which is nearly a million barrels a day. That is enough to make a lake of respectable size. The United States alone yielded 200,200,000 barrels—somewhat more than sixty-three per cent of the total world output. Yet, incredible as it may seem, the world is facing a gasoline famine. Last year the refinery oils from which gasoline is obtained in the United States decreased about 6,000,000 barrels. It was necessary to take

about 15,000,000 barrels out of storage in order to make up the deficiency and to meet new demands. Unless new oil-fields are discovered yielding a petroleum of the right composition, the market demand for gasoline can hardly be supplied for another twenty years, and gasoline (or, rather, the unstandardized fuel we now call by that name) may cease to drive motor cars long before the end of the century.

In the light of these facts, it seems strange that petroleum should once have been regarded as so much raw material from which only illuminating and lubricating oils could be profitably distilled. Gottlieb Daimler, when he made the first commercially successful high-speed gasoline engine, no doubt hoped that his motor, simplified and improved, would supplant the horse; but probably he never dreamed that his invention would some day cause the world to worry about its oil supply. The automobile industry assuredly has grown by leaps and bounds since Daimler's day. In 1913, for example, the largest manufacturer of low-priced automobiles in the United States produced about 220,000 cars. Professor Magruder, of the Ohio State University, has estimated that all the steam plants in the United States produce a total of 16,000,000 horse-power; but the one million gasoline automobiles in use, averaging 25 horse-power each, have a total output of 25,000,000 horse-power. In 1913 at least 17,000,000 barrels of gasoline were consumed by these automobiles; but, in addition to automobiles, motor boats must be considered, generating about 15,000,000 horse-power. Hence we have the staggering total of 40,000,000 horse-power as the average energy developed by the movable gasoline engines of this country. But that is not all. There are thousands of farm engines which consume gasoline, and no one could even guess by how much they increase the drain on our gasoline supply, and by how much they add to the total horse-power developed with the aid of gasoline. Very few farmers, automobilists, or motor boat owners realize that a quantity of gasoline which was produced in the laboratory of nature only after the lapse of a geological epoch—a million years and more perhaps—is consumed by

gasoline engines in a few fleeting seconds. The proceeding is economically more useful and necessary than lighting cigarettes with \$100 bills, but it is fully as rapid, and ought to arouse similar emotions. Professor Magruder has stated that, if all the gasoline engines in the country were to be operated for only ten hours a day, the gasoline supply would last only about a month. Next year the situation will become more acute—how much more no one knows exactly, because it is impossible to determine how many cars will be manufactured in 1914. One estimate places the number at 600,000, which is probably too high. Assuming that 600,000 cars will actually be made and sold, and that their average fuel consumption will be at least one gallon of gasoline a day, an oil expert, Mr. Harry Tipper, figures that 35,000,000 barrels of new crude oil will be required. "It will take something like \$75,000,000 of new facilities to market that increased amount of gasoline. That is new business, and we can hardly supply facilities for the present demand for the fuel."

The oil-fields of Pennsylvania and Ohio used to yield the best gasoline in the world. Indeed, the best Pennsylvania crude oil is worth as much in the market now as refined kerosene in bulk. But, instead of producing 33,000,000 barrels in a year, as they did in 1891, the Pennsylvania fields yield only about 9,000,000, and instead of producing fifty per cent of refinery oils, from which gasoline is obtained, as they did a few years ago, they now produce but four per cent. The same story is repeated almost everywhere. There is Ohio, for example. Its oil production has fallen from 24,000,000 barrels in 1896 to less than 9,000,000 barrels. Indiana, whose maximum production was 11,000,000 barrels in 1904, has shown a shrinkage of nearly ninety per cent. To be sure, California and Oklahoma still maintain their standard, but their oils yield only a very low percentage of gasoline. West Virginia is the only Eastern State that has not suffered a reduction in its oil yield. A good Pennsylvania oil will bring more than \$2.15 a barrel at the well because of its richness in gasoline, but a California oil is worth only 35 cents a barrel at the well. That difference in price reveals the difference between the asphalt oils of the West and the paraffine oils of the East. It must not be supposed that the gasoline factor determines the value of an oil entirely. The California oil is worth only 35 cents a barrel not only

because it contains less gasoline than the paraffine crude oil of the East, but also because it contains very little of the kerosene or lubricating fractions. Lubricating oil is an even more important product of crude oil than gasoline; without it the wheels of industry would indeed be clogged.

In vain we turn abroad for gasoline. Europe is even worse off than we. In Germany gasoline brings 40 cents a gallon. Indeed, all eastern Europe is dependent on foreign countries for liquid fuel—a serious handicap to military powers whose armaments include gasoline-driven automobiles, motor trucks, and tractors.

The situation might not be so serious if the newly discovered oils were rich in gasoline. But the new fields—those of Mexico and California—yield an oil from which very little gasoline can be obtained. Hence the oil-refiner has been compelled to adopt expedients which have enabled him temporarily to meet the demands of motorists. It would be much too long, much too wearisome, and much too technical a story to disclose his mysterious ways in detail. The briefest possible sketch must suffice.

In these enlightened days no one supposes that gasoline bubbles up out of the ground ready for the automobile; nevertheless, very few automobile-owners know exactly what gasoline is. Crude petroleum must be distilled in order to obtain gasoline. As the oil is heated in a still that looks like a boiler without flues vapors rise and float into coils, in which they are condensed to a liquid called a "distillate." At first the lighter vapors are given off, but gradually the heavier vapors ascend and are condensed. By means of switches the lighter distillates are diverted into one tank, the heavier into another. Liquids of different gravities are cut off from one another. The first "cut," as refiners call it, is crude benzine. From crude benzine gasoline and various naphthas are in turn distilled off—first the gasoline, and then the naphthas, and, lastly, lamp or burning oil distillate. Several grades of kerosene, miner's oil, and the like are drawn from this burning-oil distillate. There is no sharply defined line between gasoline and the naphthas. Hence in distilling the benzine the refiner must exercise his judgment and conscience. As the process of distilling continues, the gasoline becomes heavier, and the refiner stops when he has a product that passes for commercial gasoline. Since judgment and conscience

vary with the man, there are almost as many varieties of gasoline as there are refiners. Some refiners treat the crude benzine and a part of the kerosene fraction in order to make commercial gasoline. In a word, gasoline is not a scientific designation for a definite liquid, but merely a general name like "soap," "flour," "clay," or "wood." Because the demand for motor fuel is outstripping the supply, the refiner has been compelled to sell as gasoline a distillate which contains a fraction of the vapors that he would have switched into the naphtha tank a few years ago. If that practice had not been adopted, gasoline would have been even more expensive to-day than it is, and the motor car industry's amazing growth might have been checked. Despite this compulsory degradation, the automobile demand is insatiable.

Time was when gasoline was almost a nuisance to the refiner. Twenty-six years ago petroleum derivatives were employed chiefly as illuminants; very few engineers considered them seriously as fuels. There was no real market for such light, highly explosive, volatile distillates as gasoline. To be sure, cleaners always used gasoline to remove grease-spots and stains from fabrics and gloves; but their requirements were not great enough to keep even a moderate-sized refinery busy producing gasoline. Because he could not sell it, the refiner used to keep his gasoline as light as possible and switch all the vapors that he dared into the naphtha, for which there was a readier sale when it had been further distilled to yield kerosene. Indeed, it was necessary to pass laws in order to prevent the sale of kerosene that was too volatile—in other words, too explosive. All that is changed. Kerosene has become much less important than gasoline. Most of the laws that govern the sale of kerosene and prescribe what is and what is not a safe lamp oil might be repealed; it no longer pays to make kerosene highly explosive. It has even been necessary to teach China, Africa, Persia, and India the use of the kerosene lamp in order to open new markets. Electricity and gas have supplanted kerosene as an illuminant in this country.

For nearly half a century the average increase in price for a gallon of gasoline was not more than one cent per decade. As late as 1911 it could be bought as low as ten cents a gallon in tank car lots. In 1912 the wholesale price was suddenly raised to sixteen

cents a gallon. Moreover, the quality of the gasoline was lowered, and it will be still further lowered in the future. It is becoming heavier because it contains more of the kerosene fraction than it once did. Some day in the not distant future gasoline will contain as much of the kerosene fraction of crude oil as an automobile carbureter can utilize. But in the last year farm and motor boat engines have been slightly reconstructed to burn cheap kerosene instead of expensive gasoline. As a result the refiner has breathed more easily for the last few months. But the relief is only temporary. Thousands of new automobiles, motor boats, and stationary engines will be bought next year, and nearly all of them will consume gasoline.

These gasoline troubles have not descended upon the refiner unawares. Oil chemists and engineers foresaw them years ago, and proposed methods of escaping them long before the price of gasoline began to worry the automobile user. Some of these experts have agitated the use of benzole, a waste product of gas works, which is even better than gasoline as an engine fuel when properly treated. Unfortunately, the supply of benzole is not great enough. About one-half a ton of coal must be coked to obtain a gallon of benzole. Waste though it is, the great chemical companies of Germany buy all the benzole they can and convert it into dyes, perfumes, flavoring extracts, explosives, photographic developers, drugs, and ten thousand other chemicals much more valuable than gasoline. Alcohol, too, has been suggested. No doubt it would answer the requirements of the automobile if engines and accessories were modified. On the other hand, it is dearer even than gasoline in this country, and there is no immediate prospect that it will be cheapened.

Even assuming that a suitable, abundant, and cheap substitute for gasoline will be found, there is a business side to this fuel problem that cannot be ignored. Crude oil and its distillates can be obtained in every civilized country on the face of the earth. No commercial products are so systematically and widely distributed for sale. To build up a distribution system for a gasoline substitute would be the labor of a decade. For years the use of a new fuel would be confined within an easy radius of a few distributing centers, and the automobilist would naturally cling to his familiar gasoline, however expensive, simply because it could

always be readily obtained, whether he be touring in Norway or Italy, Alaska or South Africa.

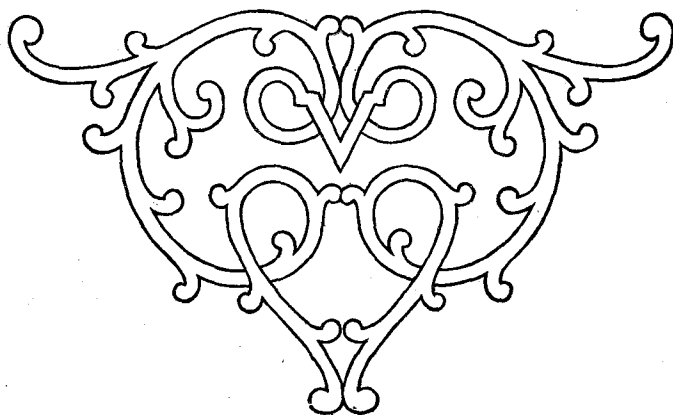
If a change in fuel is made at all, we may expect the substitution of kerosene for gasoline. Even now an automobile engine can be run, if necessary, with kerosene. Not so long ago a car was driven from New York to Boston after it had been started with kerosene; but an automobile cannot be started cold on kerosene alone. One of the most successful farm traction engines in the world uses kerosene as a fuel. A Manchester motor cab company mixes gasoline with kerosene successfully, and one of the London omnibus companies has for the moment overcome its fuel troubles by employing a combination of benzole and kerosene. But the substitution of kerosene for gasoline will mean a change in automobile design. It will mean new fuel-feeding devices, and it will mean the carrying of two tanks—one to contain a comparatively small quantity of starting gasoline, and the other a more liberal supply of kerosene. At least two manufacturers, one in England and one in the United States, have thus modified their cars.

If it comes, the change will be for the better. Dollar for dollar, kerosene will drive a car farther than gasoline. Moreover, kerosene is obtainable all over the world as readily as gasoline. Lastly, kerosene is a more or less standardized product; gasoline is not. The laws which most civilized countries passed years ago to prevent the sale of kerosene that is too volatile and too explosive have served to define the term "kerosene;" but gasoline, as we have seen, is a very loose designation for a fuel that varies with longitude and latitude. Buy a gallon of kerosene, and you know exactly what you may expect

of it in a motor car; buy a gallon of gasoline, and you have a quantity of liquid fuel which must be tested before its virtues are known.

Perhaps the first step in this possible transformation will be made by the manufacturers of motor trucks. Hitherto they have been hypnotized by the experiences and the methods of pleasure-vehicle makers. They have not attacked the fuel problem and solved it to meet their own business needs. Soon they will realize that every business man who has goods to haul will own a motor truck, and that the number of motor vehicles in use will eventually far exceed the number of pleasure cars. It will be driven home to them that, unlike a touring car, a motor truck will be operated not merely in fine weather, and then only for a few hours, but day in and day out, and that, as a consequence, it will consume several times as much fuel as a pleasure car. Sooner or later there will be an urgent demand for motor trucks that can be driven more cheaply than is now possible with gasoline, and then the day of the kerosene commercial vehicle will in truth have dawned. When that time comes, the makers of gasoline pleasure cars may also turn to kerosene; they may follow where once they led.

All this means a marvelous opportunity for inventors. Who knows but even now some obscure mechanic, keenly alive to the possibilities opened by the scarcity of gasoline, is patiently working on some carbureter which is simpler and more ingenious than any yet devised, and which will open new avenues for the automobile? For the chief difficulty is the matter of providing an efficient, trustworthy mechanism for converting kerosene into a vapor which, when mixed with air, can be made to explode in an engine cylinder.



THE FIELD OF GLORY¹

BY EDWIN ARLINGTON ROBINSON

War shook the land where Levi dwelt,
And fired the dismal wrath he felt,
That such a doom was ever wrought
As his, to toil while others fought;
To toil, to dream—and still to dream,
With one day barren as another;
To consummate, as it would seem,
The dry despair of his old mother.

Far off one afternoon began
The sound of man destroying man;
And Levi, sick with nameless rage,
Condemned again his heritage,
And sighed for scars that might have come,
And would, if once he could have sundered
Those harsh, inhering claims of home
That held him while he cursed and wondered.

Another day, and then there came,
Rough, bloody, ribald, hungry, lame,
But yet themselves, to Levi's door,
Two remnants of the day before.
They laughed at him and what he sought;
They jeered him, and his painful acre;
But Levi knew that they had fought,
And left their manners to their Maker.

That night, for the grim widow's ears,
With hopes that hid themselves in fears,
He told of arms, and featly deeds,
Whereat one leaps the while he reads,
And said he'd be no more a clown,
While others drew the breath of battle.—
The mother looked him up and down,
And laughed—a scant laugh with a rattle.

She told him what she found to tell,
And Levi listened, and heard well
Some admonitions of a voice
That left him no cause to rejoice.—
He sought a friend, and found the stars,
And prayed aloud that they should aid him;
But they said not a word of wars,
Or of a reason why God made him.

And who's of this or that estate
We do not wholly calculate,
When baffling shades that shift and cling
Are not without their glimmering;
When even Levi, tired of faith,
Beloved of none, forgot by many,
Dismissed as an inferior wraith,
Reborn may be as great as any.

¹An editorial appreciation of Mr. Robinson's place as a poet appears on another page; and a portrait of Mr. Robinson is included in our picture section this week.—THE EDITORS.

THE SPECTATOR

“WE don’t want to change Jews into Christians; we want to have them become good Jews. We don’t want to change Catholics into Protestants; we want them to become good Catholics.”

The words, uttered by a young Episcopal rector and indorsed by his Bishop, would have seemed radical, not to say revolutionary, a generation ago. They fell on the ears of the audience to whom they were addressed without causing a sensation, but as a welcome confirmation of a fact that was necessary and obvious. They marked, however, a long step in the progress of humanity away from sectarian prejudices.

The service at which these noteworthy words were spoken was held in an old church—All Saints’ Protestant Episcopal Church—in the heart of the East Side in New York City. The building was somewhat commonplace as to its exterior; constructed in the rather somber, unornamental style of the early decades of the nineteenth century, of granite, that looked as if it might remain in its present environment, if not disturbed by the restless iconoclasm of the great city, for another hundred years. Inside it had one most curious feature—a so-called “slave gallery” back of the choir; this had been closed up years ago, but its location was still pointed out to visitors from “uptown.” The name must have been given to this gallery by courtesy, for slavery was abolished in New York in 1799 by gradual emancipation which terminated almost at the time when this church was built. The gallery, however, was no doubt built and used for the benefit of the colored population, which long ago forsook that part of the city and moved to the West Side.

While the slave gallery was now only a memory, there seemed some point in the suggestion of an attendant at the service, that the slaves were still to be seen, even in this church—only now they were “wage slaves,” and white, not black. For within the brightly lighted auditorium, in the side pews, were seated members of the “out-of-works,” who in some way had heard that they were welcome at the meeting and that something was to be done for them. Unshaven, unkempt,

ill-clothed men most of them were; some of them had honest, stupid faces, some bore suggestions of “booze,” and some had hard, deeply lined countenances that indicated that fate had dealt out its worst to them and that their physiognomies had been as wax to receive the blows.

It was a question with some of the auditors whether these men should have been segregated, as was done in the old time with the other unfortunates of the slave gallery, in separate seats. But, then—do any of us want to sit next to the “great unwashed”? and, more pertinent still, do the unwashed themselves want to sit near their more fortunate neighbors? As the Bishop remarked to a questioner after the service, misfortune is usually sensitive to the point of shyness, and doesn’t care to rub its shoulders against fashionable garments. At any rate, a goodly company of the down-and-out members of society were at the church, ready to hear what might be said for their comfort or otherwise. They joined in the service so far as it was familiar to them, the Spectator observed, and none of them left during the proceedings, which fact showed that, according to Horace Greeley’s criterion as to the success of a meeting, they were at least interested. And certainly some of their more fortunate neighbors who filled the central pews to overflowing because of the fact that a Bishop was to participate in the service, looked on their isolated brothers with more than a friendly eye.

The question before the Bishop and his subordinate was the old one as to what can be done with a church after its constituency has gone. Henry Street, where this church is situated, was once one of the fine streets of the metropolis, as some of the spacious, well-built residences of the district, long turned to humbler uses in most cases, attest. But its glory has departed; and what is to be done with a church that has to remain, with its empty benches?

The earnest young rector and his active, enterprising Bishop have determined to make this a people’s church, if not a civic center. They invite the Jews to come in, they ask the Catholics and the nothingarians to enter and be ministered to—not necessarily in the

forms of religion, but in the social activities which are increasingly becoming one of the fundamental reasons-for-being of a church organization in a great city. Proselyting is not sought, but rather the opportunity of helping along broad human lines. One of the immediate plans mentioned in the Bishop's address was the making over of the roomy basement of the church into a workingman's rest-room, where at any time of the day or night an unhappy, tired worker could secure a place of shelter. No doubt this plan will develop unforeseen difficulties, but the main thing is to put the church building to use in a way that will help its neighborhood practically now, just as it did in former generations when it was a live factor in the life of its locality.



The Spectator was an interested listener at an impromptu reception given by the Bishop after the service. When congratulations had been extended as to the new movement for making this church active in the life of its ward, a pleasant-faced, earnest-eyed young woman, who was, it appeared, a member of a near-by Settlement, after suggesting co-operation between her organization and the newly instituted activities of the church, asked: "Are the men and boys to be allowed to discuss Socialism? Many of the East Side Jews are Socialists. I myself, though an Episcopalian, am a Socialist."

The question led to a lively colloquy on the merits of Socialism, with a suggestion that the church could hardly be used as a place of propaganda for a cult. One of the workers suggested that, after all, the main thing was to get the young people into the church; when they were once inside the fold they could be speedily influenced in the right direction, whether for or against Socialism. Another pointed out that the early Christians were compelled to make their converts much as the soap-box orators among the Socialists are doing to-day, and that perhaps a more sympathetic attitude on the part of the church might keep the young Socialists from regarding Christianity as a bulwark of capitalism. The interesting thing concerning the conversation was that, while the practical workers among the East Side multitudes seemed to incline toward Socialism, and the visitors from uptown were either opposed to Socialism or were advocates of some other form of social melioration, all were earnestly united in the belief that something must be done by the church toward solving the social problem, and that the work must be done on broad, humanitarian lines. The rector's remark during his preliminary talk, addressed to a wider audience than the one that filled the church, "This building is yours," was the keynote not only of this meeting, but, the Spectator believes, of the universal church's new attitude toward the people.

THE NEW BOOKS

Changed Man (A), The Waiting Supper, and Other Tales. By Thomas Hardy. Harper & Brothers, New York. \$1.35.

This substantial volume, uniform with the complete edition of Mr. Hardy's novels except in the matter of size (a most undesirable variation), contains twelve stories, or minor novels, as Mr. Hardy calls them, written between 1881-1900. Although drawn on a smaller scale, no long novels by this master of English rural life and humor are more characteristic of the genius and the cynicism of the man. They all belong to what Mr. Hardy has called "the little ironies of life." They are devoid of plot, they are somber in tone, they are pervaded by a uniform lack of cheerfulness, but they are all interesting and able.

Mr. Hardy has remarkable skill in telling a tragic story as if it were an every-day incident; in using the deepest black with the nonchalance of a man who is painting in light gray. "Wes-

sex" furnishes the background, and Wessex people, generally speaking, the character. The reader must expect to find everything going awry and most things ending in futility; but he will be in the company of an able man, and, if he cares at all for Mr. Hardy, he will find the remarkable genius of the author of "The Return of the Native" very clearly revealed.

Near East (The). By Robert Hichens. The Century Company, New York. \$6.

This is an ideal gift book, with its cover of Byzantine design and illustrations from the exquisite paintings of Jules Guérin, which so admirably supplement Mr. Hichens's word pictures of picturesque Dalmatia, the beauty of classic Greece, and the fascination of Constantinople. It is a book that one likes to skim through and then lay aside, to be taken up again at intervals when the work of the present presses hard and one would seek respite in the contem-

plation through eye and brain of the classic beauty in which the enduring is enshrined. Intermingled with his descriptions the author recounts a number of personal experiences, such as hearing the King of Greece deliver a martial speech to his subjects, his arrest as a spy while taking notes near Salamis, and his part as a spectator in Constantinople watching the deposed Sultan going and returning from his devotions in the mosque, a weary-looking old man with a blank face like "a large white envelope, and the most expressive people in the world salaaming before it."

Quality Street: A Comedy in Four Acts. By James M. Barrie. The George H. Doran Company, New York. \$5.

Every one, or almost every one, knows Mr. Barrie's quaint and delightful play, which has more nearly the tone of Mrs. Gaskell's "Cranford" than any piece of writing we know. Miss Maude Adams, we are told, has taken the charming part of Phoebe some five hundred times in this country, and the hold of the play on the public is by no means exhausted. This edition of "Quality Street" is in quarto form, and everything has been done to make the physical presentation equal in charm the literary quality. Best of all is the choice of the illustrator, Mr. Hugh Thomson, whose admirable pictures in "Cranford" and other old-time stories we are never tired of praising. He has given us here many large color pictures, which, in precise reproduction of the author's characters and also in delicacy of coloring, are all but perfect.

House of Happiness (The). By Kate Langley Boshier. Harper & Brothers, New York. \$1.25.

Optimism, to say nothing of decent cheerfulness, is so rare in recent romance that we cordially welcome "The House of Happiness," a persistently sunny story. The author of "Mary Cary" has a purpose underneath her narrative, but we are not so deeply involved in eugenics and child study as to miss the humor and reality of a group of men and women who gather (of all places!) in a sanatorium, and some of whom graduate to an ideal mountain health resort ruled by a doctor-man of ideas and imagination.

Sons and Lovers. By D. H. Lawrence. Mitchell Kennerley, New York. \$1.35.

Lu of the Ranges. By Eleanor Mordaunt. The Sturgis & Walton Company, New York. \$1.35.

There is the strong grip of reality in two grim tales, each beginning with moving scenes of the suffering borne by the children of evil parents. "Sons and Lovers" is stark in its dreadful realism. One recoils from the misery of the collier's wife, doomed to bear with a brutal, drunken husband, and tortured by desire to rescue her sons from their sordid surroundings. Her sons are first her lovers. One dies from no necessity, the other lives, and it is his life, mental, spiritual, and physical, that is minutely and yet often vaguely set before us in harsh

lines—truly a view of man's existence without hope either in this world or the next. The second story, "Lu of the Ranges," strikes an insistent note of sacrifice to selfishness until the mind rebels. The scene is laid in Australia, and the heroine, a deserted child, is overworked, abused, partially developed mentally and distorted spiritually by the combined influences of her slavery on a dairy farm and her companionship with a renegade artistic Englishman who alternately satisfies her yearning for nobler things or cruelly deserts her in her need. Both of these novels descend to unnecessary depths of evil in human nature, and are greatly in fault from their lack of balance between what should be disclosed and what should be held sacred in human life.

Memoirs of an American Prima Donna. By Clara Louise Kellogg (Mme. Strakosch). G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. \$2.50.

Clara Louise Kellogg, American Prima Donna, a name to conjure with years ago, writes her memoirs, and so refreshes the recollections of her many admirers, now in their sixties and seventies. Her musical triumphs, from her own testimony, were not won by accident. Hard study was imposed upon native gifts. Carefully guarded by her mother, she entered upon her career as a young girl, appearing first in 1861 in the parlor of Mr. Edward Cooper, of New York. For twenty-five years she gathered laurels, often interpreting well-known operatic rôles in an original way. She sang in London, St. Petersburg, and Vienna, and rehearses her experiences with evident pleasure. There is no attempt to conceal the discomforts that inevitably accompany a singer's life. Mme. Strakosch has a pungent humor in criticism which gives sparkle to her comments upon her musical comrades, and especially to her estimate of some patrons of music who arose upon her horizon. To students of musical art and progress this handsome volume, profusely illustrated with portraits of the author and others, will furnish much entertainment.

Fools of Shakespeare (The). By Fred. Warde. McBride, Nast & Co., New York. \$1.25.

Mr. Warde writes not only as a student of Shakespeare, but as an actor of experience, who knows both dramatic literature and stagecraft; and his discussion in ten or twelve chapters dealing with "The Fools of Shakespeare" has point and suggestiveness. Students of Shakespeare understand the important place filled by the fools, and the very serious significance which Shakespeare attached to them; but the great majority of theater-goers, and many of the readers of the plays, fail to give the fools their proper place. Mr. Warde writes about Touchstone, Launcelot Gobbo, the clown in "Antony and Cleopatra," the gravediggers in "Hamlet," and, above all, the noble fool in "King Lear," one of the most significant figures in that tremendous

drama. The book is very pleasantly written, and well worth reading by Shakespearean students.

Here Are Ladies. By James Stephens. The Macmillan Company, New York. \$1.25.

Readers of *The Outlook* may recall comment on Mr. Stephens's delightful "The Crock of Gold," in which reference was also made to two volumes of verse from his hand, good in their directness and picture-making quality, but remarkable chiefly for the undercurrent of quaint, whimsical humor conspicuously absent from most current verse. In the present volume—a series of detached sketches—there are fun, fancy, philosophy, and sometimes the tragic note, combined with a de Maupassant quality of tense, dramatic characterization which condenses a whole life-story into a few pages and makes the characters live human beings. A touch of the writer's peculiar humor is shown in the title "Here Are Ladies," although the story is largely a study in husbands and how they are set upon by their wives. Note his dedicatory lines:

WOMEN

Listen! If but women were
Half as kind as they are fair,
There would be an end to all
Miseries that do appal.

Then the Frozen Pole would go,
Shaking off his fields of snow,
To a kinder clime and dance
Warmly with the girls of France.

These; if women only were
Half as kind as they are fair.

The final chapter, "There is a Tavern in the Town," in itself full of all sorts of delightful possibilities, is given over to philosophizing on various subjects of popular interest—matrimony, education, smoking, dancing, music, North Pole exploration—put in the mouth of the "Old Gentleman of the Tavern," who makes his entrance shedding buttons from his waistcoat and fastening it with a nail and a bit of wire, so that we know him to be a bachelor even before he begins his monologue on matrimony.

Crown of Hinduism (The). By J. N. Farquhar, M.A. Oxford University Press, New York. \$2.50.

This is an indispensable complement to the current authorities on Hinduism, most of which present its theoretical aspects chiefly. Fully presenting these, this volume gives full prominence to the practical. Now that Hinduism's comparatively brighter side has been set forth in American cities by the Svāmī Vivekānanda and the Theosophists, and is accepted by their proselytes as preferable to Christianity, it is timely to have the whole truth told about it. Theoretically, the religious philosophy of Hinduism is, as the late Max Müller once said to the present reviewer, "beautiful," and Mr. Farquhar here says as much, and even more. Even the caste system was originally "a great

conception," and long did for India what the mediæval trade guilds did for Europe. Idolatry also, the other chief hindrance now to progress in India, he recognizes as having had its day of usefulness to spiritual life. But he unmasks the real nature of the theosophical movement in the fact that it owes its popularity in India to-day "almost exclusively to its defense of caste and idols," in reaction against the crusade of the theistic society known as the Brāma-Samāj against image worship. Vivekānanda, too, is a champion of the idols. Amply acknowledging the good fruit borne in past ages by the Hindu system, Mr. Farquhar quotes from educated Hindus ample testimony to the evils wrought by its perpetuation in the modern age, and to the good wrought by Christian missionaries as apostles of India's regeneration. He shows in detail that the needed reform of the patriarchal family system of Hinduism depends on the principles laid down by Christ; also that Hindu social ideals find completion in Christ; that Christ's method of creating servants of humanity perfects the Hindu ascetic discipline; that Christ satisfies the religious need which inspires Hindu idolatry; and that Christ fulfills the Hindu ideal of the incarnate One. Thus is "Christ the Crown of Hinduism."

Art in Spain and Portugal. By Marcel Dieulafoy. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. \$1.50.

To the interesting volumes already published by Sir Walter Armstrong on British art, by Signor Ricci on Italian art, by M. Hourticq on French art, and by Sir Gaston Maspero on Egyptian art, we have now from M. Marcel Dieulafoy a volume uniform with the above on art in Spain and Portugal. As might be imagined, M. Dieulafoy gives to us one portion of Portugal to nine portions of Spain. His style might have been more captivating to the young reader, but his matter is of moment to the older reader. The little volume is full of suggestive information. Particularly is this the case with M. Dieulafoy's references to Persia. Few stop to think that the source of Mussulman art as developed by the Moors in their mosques in Spain really found its rise in Persia and came to Spain by way of the countries of the Mediterranean. The student of architecture finds the union of the Mohammedan mosque and the Latin basilica in the Spanish peninsula.

Gospel Origins. By the Rev. William West Holdsworth. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. 75c.

This small volume is worthy of special attention by students of the New Testament, whether learned or unlearned. The text is for both classes; notes subjoined to the main chapters give the critical details required by the former. The point of special interest as an advance beyond views previously held is in an analysis of the Second Gospel, which distinguishes three successive editions of it—the Palestinian, the Alexandrian (about A.D. 42), and the Ro-

man. The last, and also the fullest of personal reminiscences of Jesus, is our canonical Mark. Matthew and Luke are generally believed to have drawn from a lost collection of *logia*—i. e., sayings of Jesus—a document named by German critics "*Q.*," i. e., *Quelle* (source). Dr. Holdsworth believes that there were two such documents, one of which was used by Luke, and the other in the First Gospel, which as a whole he regards as a compilation by some Jewish Christian in Alexandria—the two being simply the two earlier editions of Mark's work. The volume has the merit of solving some puzzling questions.

Famous Modern Battles. By A. Hilliard Atteridge. Small, Maynard & Co., Boston. \$1.75.

Some great battles have been fought since the battle of Waterloo. We have recently been celebrating the half-century of one of them, namely, Gettysburg. Of course Gettysburg has a prominent place in Mr. Atteridge's "Famous Modern Battles." There are fourteen others, ending with the battle of Lule Burgas. The volume is interestingly written and the text has been reinforced by necessary plans.

Modern Cities. By H. M. Pollock and W. S. Morgan. Funk & Wagnalls Company, New York. \$1.50.

The two authors worked together at Albany in municipal betterment, then spent several months in studying city matters in Europe. They discuss here the trend of modern effort to make the city more beautiful, more economic in administration, more valuable in every way to the individual man and woman. Many pictures show the results of special city planning at large and in detail. The book is both informative and stimulating.

Hunting the Elephant in Africa. By Captain C. H. Stigand. With an Introduction by Theodore Roosevelt. The Macmillan Company, New York. \$2.50.

Mr. Roosevelt, in his introductory article, points out that Captain Stigand unites the qualifications of a field naturalist of unusual powers with those of a noted big-game hunter—an ideal combination. From the non-expert point of view we can add that the author is a narrator of entertaining qualities. The hunting adventures are told modestly and without excitement of language, but they are mighty well worth reading. The book, moreover, is well worth while as a contribution to our knowledge of plant and animal life in Africa. The much-mooted question of "protective coloration," in particular, is treated in a sensible and moderate fashion.

The Monroe Doctrine. An Obsolete Shibboleth. By Hiram Bingham. Yale University Press, New Haven.

Mr. Bingham devotes the major part of this little volume to proving that the Monroe Doctrine is an obsolete shibboleth, and the last pages to showing that the conclusion to which that Mon-

roe Doctrine, as it has been developed and applied in the ninety years that have elapsed since it was first announced by James Madison, ought to be adopted as the policy of the American people. His book would have been logical and persuasive if he had pointed out that the Monroe Doctrine, which ninety years ago could be enforced only by the United States, can now be more effectively maintained and enforced by the alliance between the United States and the three great republics of South America—Chile, Brazil, and the Argentine Republic.

Fairy Book (The). By the author of "John Halifax, Gentleman." The Macmillan Company, New York. \$5.

In Powder and Crinoline, and Old Fairy Tales Retold. By Sir Arthur Quiller-Couch. The George H. Doran Company, New York. \$5.

Princess Badoura. Retold by Laurence Housman. The George H. Doran Company, New York. \$3.

Vanity Fair. By William Makepeace Thackeray. The George H. Doran Company, New York. \$5.

Old Curiosity Shop (The). By Charles Dickens. The George H. Doran Company, New York. \$5.

Artist in Italy (An). Written and painted by Walter Tyndale, R. I. The George H. Doran Company, New York. \$5.

"The Fairy Book," by the author of "John Halifax, Gentleman," illustrated in color by Warwick Goble, is surely one of the most attractive of children's books. The volume contains such old friends as "Cinderella," "Jack the Giant-Killer," "Tom Thumb," "Snow-White and Rose-Red," "Jack and the Bean-Stalk," and "Little Red Riding-Hood." The book should be a joy to any little child—and it will be a joy to the "grown-up" too who has not forgotten how to be a child. Sir Arthur Quiller-Couch also retells some fairy tales under the title "In Powder and Crinoline," and the tales are very interestingly illustrated in color by Kay Nielsen. This volume also may appeal not only to children but even more to grown people. "Princess Badoura" is one of the "Arabian Nights" tales, and in the present edition is retold by Laurence Housman and illustrated in color by Edmund Dulac. Both text and illustration are worthy of note—especially the illustration. Two reprints of well-known novels deserve mention in this short list of holiday books. They are Thackeray's "Vanity Fair," illustrated by Lewis Baumer, and Dickens's "Old Curiosity Shop," illustrated by Frank Reynolds. The volumes will doubtless appeal to many lovers of the two novelists. Finally, we have Mr. Walter Tyndale's "An Artist in Italy." Like Mr. Tyndale's other books, this is well worth any one's while. Mr. Tyndale is emphatically the painter wherever he goes, and the pictorial capabilities of whatever he sees are instantly recognized by him. When one joins this with a sense of historical perspective, there results such a volume as the present one.

MANY INVENTIONS

TALKING OVER FOUR THOUSAND MILES

A despatch from Berlin dated November 21 is of special interest because of recent reports that vocal sounds, although not actual words, have been carried across the Atlantic by the Marconi wireless telephone system. The Berlin report is to the effect that Rear-Admiral Emsmann, director of the Lorenz Engineering Company, told the Congress of the Society of Naval Architects, in session at Charlottenburg, that a coherent message had been transmitted from the company's station at Neustadt, in Hanover, to the station at Tuckerton, on the coast of New Jersey, a distance of nearly four thousand miles. Rear-Admiral Emsmann said that the Goldschmit high frequency apparatus was employed. Both stations are equipped with towers 800 feet high.

Admiral Emsmann said he believed that there will soon be a widespread development of the aërophone in communication with ships at sea.

WILL RADIUM BECOME CHEAP?

The latest quotation we have seen for radium is \$120 per milligramme—over four million dollars per pound. But there is a fair possibility of its becoming cheaper. At present the supply comes chiefly from pitchblende, but various other sources are being tried. Thus within a few weeks the London papers ascribe to a German professor named Rudolf Sommer the discovery of an important new process of extracting radium quickly from unexpected sources. The discovery is said to be now well on the way to a practical working basis.

Professor Sommer has been experimenting for five years at Neulengbach, near Vienna, where he devised a process of extracting the precious metal from the rough ore in from three to four months, whereas the processes previously known have taken from ten to eighteen months. Professor Sommer gets his supply from ore not so rare or dear as pitchblende, such as carnotite, of which big supplies are available. He has already produced three-quarters of a gramme.

The ordinary processes of extraction involve inevitable loss. Professor Sommer's process is described as being so economical and the loss so small that he is able to treat ores containing minute quantities of radium and extract from them an amount less than the amount lost by other processes.

THE REALISM OF THE "MOVIE"

There is almost no end to the amount of expense, time, and ingenuity which may profitably be put into the construction of a moving-picture film. That of "The Last Days of Pompeii," for instance, involves moving masses of hundreds of people, presents careful and

excellent acting, and in many of its scenes has a claim to be considered an artistic creation. And such expensive films pay because one may be exhibited for months to two or three audiences a day in great cities and small towns, in many places simultaneously, and at an advanced price over the poorer and cheaper films. The latest piece of this kind of realism has been the sinking of a real steamship at sea in order to carry out for the movies a representation of Hauptmann's "Atlantis," says the New York "Herald."

This is how it was done. A steamship plying between New York and Copenhagen was chartered outright for three days, with her full complement of officers and crew, and steamed into the North Sea prepared for action. On board there were five hundred passengers, "especially invited," and among these were a large number of expert swimmers, divers, and professional life-savers. A second and smaller (and probably outworn) vessel was bought outright, christened the Roland, and, after many scenes of the story had been enacted on the larger vessel, the smaller was scuttled and sunk while swimmers, divers, and life-savers played their parts in the water about her, the cameras merrily clicking meanwhile from the other ship. The total cost of the film is said to exceed \$120,000.

A SCHOOL FOR THE "HAND-MINDED"

"I like this school because I never could have learned anything, and I am more use in the world." This is the way a girl pupil in the Elementary Industrial School of Cleveland, Ohio, describes her impressions of the new kind of school work, according to a bulletin just issued by the United States Bureau of Education.

The Elementary Industrial School was established to give "hand-minded" boys and girls as good a chance as the "language-minded" have always had. Cleveland was one of the first cities in the United States to make a distinction between the two types of children—those who take to books and those who do not. In Cleveland, as in most American cities, about half the children have been leaving school in the sixth grade. The Cleveland school authorities saw that much of this waste was due to the attempt to force abstract intellectual effort on boys and girls whose interest was in doing things. The Elementary Industrial School was meant to meet this situation. To it boys and girls were admitted if they were over thirteen years of age and were two or more years behind their grade in school.

In this school one-half of the time is devoted to English, mathematics, geography-history—the two in close connection—and to hygiene of a thoroughly practical character. The remain-

ing periods are given to manual and industrial work—including shop work—to domestic economy and gymnasium practice. A poll of the pupils showed that with the girls cooking and sewing were favorite subjects; with the boys, mechanical drawing and woodworking.

The school has been successful even in the face of adverse conditions. The enrollment has doubled in the past four years. Pupils who had long since lost interest in school work of any kind, some to the extent of being known as "dullards and incorrigibles," have become eager and alert, not only in the hand subjects; but in the academic work as well.

DESERT SAND AND ELECTRIC WIRES

Extending from Cairo to the Pyramids of Gizeh is an electric trolley line which is used chiefly by tourists. The "Electric World" thus describes a peculiar feature of the service: "The trunks of huge palm trees serve as trolley poles to support the overhead conductor, and the contrast between the modern hurrying motor cars and the peaceful centuries-old tombs of the Pharaohs holds the interest of many a contemplative traveler. At one side of the trolley conductor, on bell-shaped insulators, are run the feeders, which, like the trolley wire, are of bright, hard-drawn copper. After these wires had been installed it was soon found that they invariably broke and fell within six or seven months, the cross-section being much reduced at the point of fracture. Investigation showed that the desert winds which sweep across the right of way whip sand particles against the wires, causing a filing action which cuts away the copper much like an artificial sand blast. The glass globes of arc lamps installed along the road have exhibited the same destructive action. A similar effect is observed with the incandescent units used to light the way to the Sphinx. These strings of lamps, besides having to be moved at frequent intervals to accommodate the varying level of the shifting sands, are rapidly eaten away by the etching action of the desert winds. Thus far no remedy has been discovered for this destruction except frequent renewals."

DARWIN'S THOROUGHNESS

Henri Fabre, the naturalist, tells in the "Fortnightly Review" a characteristic story about Charles Darwin and himself. Darwin wanted to explain the "homing" instinct of bees, and induced Fabre to begin a series of experiments with that purpose in view. A regular plan of campaign was drawn up. Marked bees were placed in a dark box and carried away from the hive in the opposite direction from that in which they were finally liberated. The box was repeatedly turned about, so that the inmates would lose all sense of direction. Every possible means was taken to render use-

less any known or conceivable method of obtaining one's bearings. The bees were even placed within an induction-coil in the effort to confuse them. The result of a long and elaborate series of tests was nil so far as any explanation of the homing power was concerned. In every case from thirty to forty per cent of the bees found their way home without apparent trouble, no matter how confusing the trip away from home had been made.

The story is characteristic, comments a writer in the New York "Evening Post," because it illustrates the thorough way in which the author of the "Origin of Species" attacked all his problems. He was not one to merely "opine prettily and probably," and let it go at that. He put everything to the test of experiment, and when the answer came out wrong, or didn't come out at all, he "scrapped" the hypothesis as a matter of course instead of trying to explain away its failure.

INCREASING TENSILE STRENGTH

It is pointed out by a French authority that in applying the hardness test the metal under examination is likely to undergo slight surface hardening. Experiments were carried out to determine whether tensile strength tests would give a better idea of the exact physical state of metals. Similar bars of carefully annealed silver were rolled to various extents whereby different degrees of hardness were obtained. The hardness of each bar was determined, the tensile strength test applied, and then the hardness again determined. It was found that the tensile strength, although giving no indication of slight degrees of hardening, increased regularly with the extent of hardening, and the elongation diminished. When the bar broke under a slight load, and the elongation was considerable, there was a marked increase in hardness after the tensile strength test; but in the case of the hardened metal, when the elongation was slight, there was even a diminution in the hardness after applying the tensile strength test. Further experiments on brass and on aluminum showed very conclusively that the strain on the metal did not increase the hardness unless the metal underwent appreciable elongation. —*American Machinist.*

THE VALUE OF TREES

The net receipts from the National forests of Washington and Oregon, says a report from the Forestry Bureau, during the past four months amounted to \$115,620, an increase of seventeen per cent over receipts for the same period last year. Of the two million trees to be planted in the National forests of Montana and northern Idaho during the present fiscal year, one-half have been set out this fall and the rest will be put in next spring.

BY THE WAY

"The Survey," which has rounded out its first twelve months as "an adventure in co-operative journalism," signalizes the beginning of its second year by appearing in an enlarged and extremely attractive form. In its short career "The Survey" has demonstrated its real value to serious-minded people and has become indispensable to social workers and students and to all who take a genuine interest in civilizing humanity. If any one wishes to confirm this statement, let him read the November issue, especially the comprehensive article on the strike in the Lake Superior copper mines.

Approximately 1,080,000 dressed turkeys, it is estimated, were consumed in New York City in Thanksgiving Day feasts. The finest turkeys this year came from Maryland and Virginia. Kentucky sent the biggest turkey to the White House; it weighed forty pounds.

Two current magazines give illustrations of the primitive culture found in both the savage and the civilized world. Dean Worcester in the "National Geographic Magazine" tells of wild Filipino tribes that regard as over-educated the man who can count up to twenty; Professor Ross in the "Century Magazine" quotes a New York immigration official: "In our daily official duties we come to know the individual who cannot count to twenty every time correctly; who can tell the sum of two and two, but not of nine and six; name the days of the week, but not the months of the year; who swears he paid his own passage to America, but is unable to tell what it cost."

"Blue Monday" is a complaint that troubles not ministers alone, who may perhaps more legitimately than most people claim some indulgence as to the reaction from the fatigues of Sunday. "Blue Mondayitis," according to a physical director of a Young Men's Christian Association, is a result of the high tension life of our great cities in its effects on business men generally. He prescribes physical training as a specific for the cure of the disease.

Cincinnati gave a warm welcome to James Whitcomb Riley, the Hoosier poet, recently, when he passed through the city on his way South for the winter. Among other displays of affectionate regard, five thousand children from the public and parochial schools assembled in Music Hall and sang and recited some of Mr. Riley's verse.

"A famous and oracular Spaniard, Baltasar Gracian," says "Collier's Weekly," "writing on worldly wisdom, has declared that a man in the zenith of his development may be known by the purity of his taste, the clearness of his thought, the maturity of his judgment, the firmness of his will." To this enumeration of fine qualities

"Collier's" adds: "That man we believe to be at his highest point who, upon attaining the top of his ambition (or upon not attaining it), sees the true value of all mundane ambition and turns his energies to service and self-sacrifice."

The Rev. Alexander Irvine, formerly assistant at the Church of the Ascension in New York City, recently appeared on the vaudeville stage in a playlet of his own production. In a speech he said: "I have lived in New York for twenty-five years and I have done everything from driving a milk cart to appearing on Mr. Hammerstein's stage. And I am not through yet. I want to tell you that the world behind the footlights is as human, as kind, as noble of purpose, as any I have ever known."

Playwrights are beginning to recognize the great popular interest in the Panama Canal as giving them a cue for historical plays dealing with the era of Spanish discovery and conquest. A pageant play entitled "Balboa" is to be produced at San Francisco; and Gerhart Hauptmann is reported to be writing a play dealing with the introduction of Christianity into Mexico under Cortez.

Emperor William of Germany is in a fair way to be called a Puritan. In addition to being an abstainer from intoxicants, he has now won the distinction of placing himself in opposition to the suggestive new dances, particularly the tango. It is reported that he has forbidden army officers to dance the tango while in uniform, or to be present where it is being danced.

Colonel Goethals, chief engineer of the Panama Canal, has been invited by the authorities of Dayton, Ohio, to come to that city on the completion of the Canal and make Dayton a model municipality. The compliment is no doubt well meant, but Colonel Goethals, being an engineer of the Army Corps, could not, it is said, be detailed for work of this character without special legislation by Congress.

The example of the British Government in damming the Nile has apparently suggested to a Western man the idea of damming the Colorado River within the mighty walls of the Grand Canyon. The project is described as practicable from an engineering point of view, but the scenic beauties of this most magnificent of earth's chasms should forever forbid such profanation.

Governor Tener, of Pennsylvania, who once was a professional baseball player, is to become President of the National Baseball League for the next four years. He will not assume the full duties of his new office, however, until his term as Governor expires. The new place, in the eyes at least of the athletic youth of the country, will doubtless outrank Governor Tener's present

position, as being an advance from State to National celebrity and from politics to "the game."

The high price of eggs has caused heavy importations to be made from abroad, principally from Siberia, Austria, and Germany. It is believed that about 100,000 cases of thirty dozen each, or 36,000,000 eggs, will be received before the market becomes normal again.

"In what city was Homer born?" a subscriber humorously inquires in sending in his answer to the great ice-cream soda question: "Who invented ice-cream soda? It was invented in Bethlehem, Pennsylvania, in the confectionery store of Ambrose H. Rauch, in 1867, about. The exact year is the only thing in doubt."

Dividends thus far this year, says the New York "Sun," show that the former Standard Oil companies have declared a total of 111 per cent on the basis of the \$100,000,000 authorized capital of the parent company, against 52 per cent declared in 1912. Such is dissolution!

"Can you tell the difference between wrinkles produced by smiling," asks a newspaper philosopher, "and those produced by discontent? The wrinkles from happiness come only after a couple of scores of years of smiling, while those which spring from worry may grow overnight. If women only realized that the best beautifier is not to be bought on the market, but is simply provided for by nature, namely, a smile, even New York would be a happy-looking city."

A newspaper humorist who thinks any kind of a bank account is an indication of easy circumstances says: "Member of a firm just failed for \$6,000,000 calls attention to the fact that when the concern went under he had only \$150 in the bank. Should call that commendable foresight."

"Few die and none resign." This aphorism regarding Government employees is brought to mind by the announcement of the decease of Archie Lewis, who was in charge of the robing-room of the Justices of the Supreme Court at Washington. He had held the position for sixty-four years, and it was his boast that he had served two-thirds of all the men who ever sat on the bench of the Supreme Court.

Fierce blizzards and summer zephyrs marked the month of November. The disagreeable weather came as far East as Cleveland, and the zephyrs visited New York City the week before Thanksgiving, the temperature then reaching 70 degrees on the top of the Weather Bureau sky-scraper and going several degrees higher on *terra firma*.

In a chapter on "Biltmore and the New Era" in a recently published book on "The Carolina Mountains," Margaret W. Morley tells of the transformation wrought in the lives of the mountaineers by the methods of that great estate. "Each year young men from all parts

of the mountains were employed at Biltmore, not by tens or by hundreds, but by thousands. . . . All the directors of this great estate . . . were drawn from the ranks of the people, who proved themselves so trustworthy and capable that in all these years only three or four of Biltmore's mountaineer employees have had to be dismissed."

The battle-ship Wyoming, according to records tabulated in the Navy Department, leads our fleet in results in target practice. The Arkansas is second, and the Rhode Island third.

Will Chinese intelligence ever reach the point when the small medicinal value of ginseng will be recognized? At present the curious predilection for using this root as a medicine results in the sale even of inferior specimens at an extravagant price. "Most of the American ginseng received in Hongkong," says the "American Agriculturist," "is ungraded, and a large portion of it grades as refuse and sells at 90 cents to \$2.88 a pound."

The advance in naval architecture during the last few years is indicated by the fact that the recently launched battle-ship Queen Elizabeth, of the British navy, is more than twice as powerful, judging from the weight of metal thrown in a broadside, as the Dreadnought, launched in 1906. The Queen Elizabeth is the first of four oil-burning vessels building for the British Government; the Warspite, the second of these vessels to be launched, is still more powerful.

Carrying coals to Newcastle would seem no more absurd than bringing corn to America, the greatest corn-producing land in the world. But recently a cargo of 200,000 bushels of corn came from Argentina to Galveston, and it is understood that other cargoes will follow. This importation is made possible by the removal of the import duty on corn.

In the "Moxford Book of English Verse," by A. Stodart-Walker, a writer in the London "Academy" finds "the high-water mark of poetic parody." Among the authors parodied, W. E. Henley thus addresses his readers, as a football enthusiast:

"Out of the mud which covers me,
Black as my hat from head to sole,
I thank the friendly referee
For our unconquerable goal."

Lady Holland met Napoleon I when he was Consul, and in a recently published letter she writes of the Man of Destiny's personal characteristics: "His head is out of proportion, being too large for his figure. It is well shaped; his ears are very neatly shaped and small, his teeth fine. The gracious smile he puts on is not in unison with the character of the upper part of his face; that is penetrating and severe and unbending."